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MADHYA PRADESH

DAMOH



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MADHYA PRADESH DISTRICT GAZETTEERS

DAMOH

P. N. SHRIVASTAV

DISTRICT GAZETTEERS DEPARTMENT
MADHYA PRADESH
BHOPAL

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PREFACE

Damoh district gazetteer first published in 1906 under the editorship of R. V. Russell, I. C. S., like the rest of the gazetteers of those times, devoted considerable space to the people, their customs and manners. Development activities were meagre in the first decade of the twentieth century, nevertheless the gazetteer by Russell dealt with revenue and administrative progress made in the district.

Damoh District is of considerable antiquity. The discovery of Stone Age tools in Singrampur Valley and on the banks of Sonar, Kopra and Bearma rivers provide ample evidence that Damoh was the abode of early man. In the 5th century A. D., the District was part of the vast empire of the imperial Guptas of Magadh. This is evidenced by the discovery of a large number of inscriptions, coins and temples belonging to the period of Samudragupta, Chandragupta and Skandagupta. From the 8th to the 12th centuries parts of Damoh were included in the Chedi kingdom of the Kalachuris with their capital at Tripuri. The temple at Nohta, built by Kalachuri queen Nohala in the 10th century stands as a testimony to their glorious rule. At the same time inscriptional evidence proves that parts of the District were held by the Chandellas of Jejjakbhukti.

Beginning of the 14th century marks the penetration of the Muslim rulers in this region. Inscriptions at Saliya and Batiagarh mention the names of Khalji and Tughluq Sultans, respectively. Still later, the Sultans of Malwa extended their sway over Damoh.

Under the rule of the Gond dynasty of Garha-Mandla, the District enjoyed a long period of peace and prosperity. Sangram Shah who rose to power in the last quarter of the 15th century carved out a vast kingdom, comprising 52 *garhas* or districts. Of these 4 *garhas*, namely, Damoh, Hatta, Madiado and Singorgarh are located in Damoh District. It was near Singrampur in Damoh District that the valiant Durgavati fought the first battle against the Mughal army, under the command of Asaf Khan.

After a brief rule of Chhatrasal Bundela, the District passed into the hands of the Marathas in 1732. The Marathas ruled over the District till the year 1818, when Damoh was ceded to the British, consequent to the Peshwa's deposition.

The people of Damoh played a heroic part in the great revolt of 1857

under the leadership of Thakur Kishore Singh of Hindoria, Raja Devi Singh of Sangrampur, Pancham Singh of Karijog, Gangadhar Rao, Raghunath Rao, Govind Rao, Meharban Singh and many other rebel leaders.

In bringing the present volume uptodate according to the new pattern of revising gazetteers, the Central Gazetteers Unit, Govt. of India, under Dr. P. N. Chopra deserves special thanks. Officers of the department who did strenuous work to compile, edit and print include Sarvashri S. D. Guru, Dr. R. K. Jain, Assistant State Editors, Shri Vishnu Saran, Shri M. M. Muley, Shri P. K. Bhatnagar, Shri R. R. Jain, Shri R. K. Shrivastava and Shri M. P. Dubey, editors and Smt. N. Sen, Shri K. R. R. C. Nair, Dr. R. C. Munje, Shri S. M. Rastogi, Shri N. P. Pandey, Shri R. K. Nayak, Shri K. A. S. Bais and Shri T. S. Sarma, Compilers.

The draft of Damoh Gazetteer was finalised by the then State Editor Shri P. N. Shrivastav. Thanks are also due to the State Archaeology Department for permission to print photographs.

The printing work was entrusted to the Press Cell in charge of Shri K. R. R. C. Nair who strained every nerve, under the able direction of Shri R. K. Shrivastava, Editor, to expedite the printing and publication of Damoh Gazetteer.

Bhopal,
10th June, 1974

RAJENDRA VERMA
State Editor

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(1971)

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GENERAL

Damoh District lies between 23°9′ and 24°27′ North latitude and between 79°3′ and 79°57′ East longitude in the northern part of Jabalpur Division. The Tropic of Cancer passes through the southern part of the District. The shape of the District is irregular and elongated from north to south with projections in the east and west. It can be compared to the vertical plan of a jug. The District is bounded by the district of Chhatarpur in the north and north-west, Sagar in the west, Narsimhapur and Jabalpur in the south, and Jabalpur and Panna in the east. The whole of Damoh District lies on the Malwa-Bundelkhand Plateau.

The area of the District is 7,322 sq. km. (2,827 sq. miles)[1] which is about 1.7 per cent or one sixtieth of the State of Madhya Pradesh. The greatest length of the District from north to south is nearly 144.8 km. and the width about 80.46 km. Its population according to the Census of 1961 is 438,343.

The District derives its name from the headquarters town of Damoh. By tradition, the town is named after Damayanti, the queen of Raja Nala of Narwar, a personage who is known only to folklore. It is also locally believed that the town was founded by Damayanti.[2]

Origin of the Name

The stone inscription of 15th century found at Chandi Chopra (old Chopra Pati), about 32.2 km. south-east of Damoh, refers to a town, namely, Damanakpur. Hiralal thinks that this town is no other than Damoh, for Damoh (Damooh) means a cluster of dwellings.

History of the District as an Administrative Unit

The early history of administration in the District is linked with Singorgarh, Bilhari, Nohata, Batihadim (Batiagarh), etc. Singorgarh was probably held by a Parihar ruler[3] during 1357-1364. The local officer of the Chandela territory in the 12th century was called *Kamdar* who resided in the fort of Bilhari in the beginning, and later, at Nohata. Under the Khiljis and Tughluqs of Delhi, Batihadim,

1. Damoh District Census Handbook. According to the State Survey Department the area is 7,273 sq. km. (2808.7 sq. miles). According to the Central Statistics Organisation, Department of Statistics, Govt. of India, the area of the District is 7,321 sq. km. as on 1st January, 1966.
2. Hiralal, *Damoh Deepak*, p. 85.
3. Hiralal, op., cit., p. 112; A. Cunningham, Archaeological Survey Report, Vol. IX, pp. 49-50, 57; *Damoh District Gazetteer*, p. 209.

later called Batiagarh, was the centre of local administration as the Tughluq Nawab resided here. The Khiljis of Malwa shifted the headquarters of local administration to Damoh. Lakhroni and Narsinghgarh (Nasratgarh) were other headquarters of the early Muhammadan rulers.

About 1540 A.D. Dalpat Shah, Sangram Shah's successor, removed the seat of the Government of Garha-Mandla to the fortress of Singorgarh which he enlarged and strengthened before his death. Probably, the territory in this part was divided into four sub-offices or 'Garhs', the other three being Damoh, Madiado and Hatta. Madiado was the centre of a territory occupied by 360 villages and it is recorded that there existed 350 villages between the Hiran in Jabalpur District and the Bearma in Damoh District. However, after the fall of Rani Durgawati in the battle of Barela Damoh was annexed to the Mughal empire and was placed under an *Amil* who was under the Subedar of Malwa for time being. The parganas of Damoh, Narsinghgarh and Lakhroni were in the *Sarkar* of Chauragarh. It seems that the town was returned to the Gond kings of Garha-Mandla after sometime. When the Gond kingdom was on its decline, Narindshah had to bargain peace by offering five 'Garhs' including Damoh to Chhatrasal Bundela and another five including Madiado and Hatta to the Mughals. These gifts covered nearly the whole of present Damoh District.

Nearly one third of the kingdom of Maharaja Chhatrasal was bestowed on the Peshwa in December, 1731, in return to the aid the latter afforded to the former. The bestowed territory included Sagar, parts of Damoh, etc. Other parts of Damoh District, however, continued to be with Hirde Shah, son of Chhatrasal. The Marathas got their hold gradually over the bulk of the District and ruled for about 80 years. The territory was administered by the *Subahdars* of Sagar. The District was administered by two *Diwans* and seven subordinate *amils* or *mamlatdars*.

The former were stationed at Damoh and Hatta and the latter at the pargana headquarters of Narsinghgarh, Patharia, Patera, Batiagarh, Tejgarh, Jujhar and Kaonta. A *fadnavis* or Maratha Accountant and a Kayasth Kanungo to keep revenue accounts in Hindi, were attatched to each of the *amils*. The authority was supported by a military garrison.

In 1817, on the deposition of the Peshwa by Lord Hastings, Damoh with Sagar passed under the British rule. The headquarters of the District was at first located at Hatta and after being transferred more than once, was fixed at Damoh in 1838. Up till 1854 the District was administratively subordinate to Sagar. Of the two tahsils created, Damoh comprised the parganas of Patharia with 55 villages, Narsinghgarh 92, Damoh 213, Mangarh 122 and Tejgarh 270 villages. Under the old pargana system the following five parganas formed Hatta tahsil: Fatehpur with 134 villages, Batiagarh 126, Hatta 171, Patera 76 and Kota 52 villages. But the District was reduced to the level of a Sub-Division of Sagar on 31st October, 1932 and it remained so till 1st October, 1956.

The first major change in the limits of the District was the transfer of 123 villages including Singrampur pargana from Jabalpur to Damoh in 1869. Leaving the changes due to advancements in surveys and corrections of statistics, the second change occurred after the Census of 1901, when 24.1 sq. km. of Government forest from Damoh District were transferred to Narsimhapur district. Small enclaves of Panna State, merged in the former Vindhya Pradesh, were transferred to Damoh District (then a Sub-Division of Sagar District) in 1951,[1] under the Provinces and States (Transfer of Enclaves) Order, 1950. Out of this Pairakheri village with an area of 2.62 sq. km. was added to Damoh tahsil and ten villages, namely, Udaipura, Bachhama, Shyamarsinghi, Ghoria, Madanpura, Patha, Kharpura, Didhi, Niwas and Bandha Barkhera with an area of 32.54 sq. km. were added to Hatta tahsil. Under the same Order three villages,namely, Kupi, Udla and Bhainsroi were transferred to Panna district.

Sub-Divisions, Tahsils and Thanas

The District is divided into the Sub-Divisions of Damoh and Hatta, each coinciding with the tahsil boundaries. The Sub-Divisional Offices are looked after by the Sub-Divisional Officers of the rank of Deputy Collectors. The two tahsils of the District are also Damoh and Hatta. The tahsil offices are kept in charge of a Tahsildar each. For the purpose of Revenue and Land Records, each tahsil is divided into the Naib Tahsildar's charge, the Revenue Inspector's Circle and the Patwari Circle. For Police administration the District is divided into the charge of fourteen Station Houses called Thanas. The list of Thanas are given in Appendix B.

Topography

Damoh District lies on the south-eastern part of the great Vindhyan plateau, which stretches north of and parallel to the Narmada. The plateau rises abruptly from the Narmada valley in the line of steeply scarped hills, at the summit of which it reaches its greatest elevation and from where there is a gradual slope, generally towards the north-east. The plateau is broken and crossed by the Sonar valley in this District and by a series of valleys between chains of hills further to the north-east. Thus, the Sonar valley divides the plateau into two parts, a large black in the south and a narrow belt in the north-western part of the District.

Physiographic Divisions

The latest *Gazetteer of India*[2] places the District into three physiographic sub-divisions, namely, Vindhyan range, Vindhyan scarps and a Bundelkhand uplands. In the above classification of physical divisions on an all-India basis, the Vindhyan scarp-lands cover the entire Sonar valley and the southern plateau, excluding the main line of hills belonging to the Vindhyan range. For a small area like this District, the Sonar valley can be considered to be a separate division

1. Census of India, 1961, Vol. VIII, pt. A, p. 48.
2. *Gazetteer of India*, Vol. I, 1965, Chapter on Physiography by S. P. Chatterjee, pp. 32-44 and the associated map of India, Physiographic Regions.

and the Vindhyan range may be grouped with the rest of the southern hills, classed as Vindhyan scarps. Thus, there are the following district physical divisions in the District.

1. The Southern Plateau
   (a) The Vindhyan Range and the Southern Precipice
   (b) The Broad Southern Plateau
2. The Sonar Valley, and
3. The North-Western Hill Range.

The Southern Plateau lies at a general elevation of about 450 metres, marked with the main line of hills on or along its southern and south-eastern margins and more or less a continuous precipice overlooking the Narmada and the Hiran valleys.

The Vindhyachal Range

The Vindhyachal range is really the long range of escarped hills which stretch from the vicinity of Mandvi to the junction of the Hiran with the Narmada. It continues into the Bhanrer and the Kaimur ranges to the north of the Sone valley. In fact the range is the southern edge of the Vindhyan Plateau. Generally the escarpment is more prominently marked than the hill range, because the range is either mingled with or less distinct from the off-shoot ranges branching off towards the north and the north-east. In Damoh the southern part of the Vindhya range up to Katangi is called the Bhanrer range. Beyond this point, the escarpment enclosing the land-locked valley of Singrampur, and the hill-range in continuation, is called the Kaimur range. The southern edge of the plateau and the hills scarp steeply to the south facing the Narmada valley and the valley of the Hiran. Mostly composed of sandstones with quartz formations at their base the escarpment owes its origin either to a fault in the Narmada valley or an upheaval of the whole strata of the Vindhyan plateau into an almost vertical position.

At places, as in Narsimhapur and Sagar districts, the precipice has been much cut up by agencies of erosion and turned into a belt of ravinous country. In Damoh it forms a sharp edge and natural boundary with that of Jabalpur district. Even the long and narrow ridges of Vindhya hills, wherever they lie separated from the plateau, have scarping sides facing the valley. Along the lower course of the Hiran one such close and parallel ridge of Bhanrer is noted to have south-eastern scarp in Jabalpur district. These features have been effective brarriers of communication, and the only easy pass through Singrampur and Katangi seems to have been a highway of strategic and administrative importatance since the long historical past. It was the scene of a fierce battle between Asaf Khan, the Mughal Subedar of Kara-Manikpur and Rani Durgawati of the Garha-Mandla kingdom. The northern scarp of Singorgarh hill is marked with the ruins of the lofty fortification which flourished during the mediaeval period. The greatest height in this range is that of the Kulumar hill, 751 metres above the

mean sea level. On the north-east of Singrampur-gap, Kheri (586.7 metres) is the highest peak. Elsewhere the hills range from 650 to 580 metres high.

The Broad Southern Plateau

North and north-west of Bhanrer range and north-west of Kaimur range the great table land slopes towards the north-east. Originally it extended beyond Panna in the north. With the establishment of drainage lines and the consequent erosion, now the valley of the Sonar and the Kopra lies into a broad belt of low alluvial country between the line of dissected hills on the south-east and the scarps of the north-western plateau. Thus the plateau region has been separated from the north-western hill range.

The Southern plateau extends in a broad belt from south-west to north-east. It is centrally drained by the Bearma and is traversed by a number of spurs and ridges, generally accounted in the Vindhyan range. The north-western limit of the Southern Plateau is marked by the hills of Fatehpur (450 metres), Satiria (479 metres), Hindoria (above 457 metres), and Jamunia (triangulation point at 447 metres) which are apparently disjointed from a single ridge. The hills of Lodhikheda (463.6 metres), Gubra (417 metres), and Pateria (429.9 metres) are the off-shoots of the Bhanrer range in the southern part of the District. They extend from south to north. The western slopes of Salaiya plateau marked along the District boundary and the hills to the north and west of Mala are grouped into the north-eastern hills. Locally, the hills near Hindoria are known as Bhondla range and those running from Mangarh, above the Sun valley to the Bearma, the Mangarh range.

The Bearma and its tributaries have a zigzag, branching and narrow upland-valley amidst low hills and forests The soil cover of the valley is comparatively shallow, but there are occasional deeper and broader beds of black soil which are supposed to be the most fertile in the District. The land is commonly embanked to retain water and wheat is grown often after a crop of rice. However, agriculture pays here better than the *haveli*.

Among the more fertile patches in the Bearma valley may be mentioned the Sun valley, where the *Chaubisa* group of villages is very fertile. Around Abhana and Nohta the valley of the Bearma opens out into a stretch of fertile black soil which is largely double-cropped. The narrow and small valleys on the east and west of Kalumar hill in this region are also fertile patches of land. The Jabera valley drains west into the Bearma and across the line of the Kaimur which is broken up here. It is said to have been a vast lake once. It now consists of several agricultural villages. But this and the Singhpur valley along the Phalku river and Bhaddar stream banks are accounted to be less fertile than the Sun valley. The Bearma valley around Taradehi and below upto Nohta is also of lesser agricultural value.

Except the narrow river valley and a few clearings on the even surfaces, e.g., around Selwara, Beharia and Mohli, nearly the whole area of the Southern Plateau and the Vindhyan range is covered under the Reserved forests.

The Sonar Valley

The Sonar valley (Haveli) extends in a belt across the north-central part of the District. It is about 80 km. long from south-west to north-east and 32 to 40.3 km. wide between the scarps of the Southern and Northern Plateau of the Vindhyas, which also form the local water-shed between the Sonar and the Bearma to the south and the Sonar and the Barana *nala* to the north-west. It lies at an elevation of 336 metres from the mean sea level. The Bewas, the Kopra and the Bearma are the important tributaries of the Sonar joining it in Damoh and flowing through the valley. The valley lying in the south of Sagar and the centre of Damoh District is composed of fertile black soil formed from the detritus of volcanic rocks which still cap the south-western hills, and had extended in larger area in the geological past.

The Sonar valley is the principal agricultural region of the District wholly devoid of forests. It is the most populous zone containing a large number of villages and the major commercial, administrative and industrial centres. Damoh, Hindoria and Patera are located along the south-eastern margin of the valley. Kerbana, Batiagarh, Fatehpur, and Mariado villages settle along the north-western limits of the valley whereas Hatta, Gaisabad, Reneh, Sitanagar and Bangaon are in the centre. Though it is not adequate, by reason of necessity and because of the even surface of the ground a large percentage of road and railway-length of the District has been constructed in this part. Naturally, they follow the drainage lines and low gaps in the hilly region to the south-east and north-east of Damoh town. In the Sonar valley region the roads track along the higher grounds and prefer to cross the rivers at fords. However, the control of topography is less binding on the human activities in the Sonar valley.

The Sonar is the most important river of the District and forms its central drainage line. Its valley slopes gradually and gently towards the north-east. On an average its slope is 1 to 1320 metres.

The North-Western Hill Range

The North-Western Plateau rises about 120 metres like a well from the Sonar valley. Its north-western slope in Damoh drains into the Barana *nala* which joins the Ken. Locally known as Barana hills, the central ridge (460 to 520 metres) is marked by several flat-topped hills and runs from south-west to north-east. The Phurtal hill (525 metres) is the highest point of this range in the District. There are a few small villages along the flat top of the range and on the banks of the streams, rest of the area is occupied by low forests taken under the Government Reserves. The only metalled road crossing the hill range is Damoh-Hirapur Road passing through Batiagarh and Bakswaho.

Drainage

Except a few small streams joining the Hiran, a tributary of the Narmada, the whole District is drained into the Yamuna through the tributaries and feeders of the Ken. The main local system is of the Sonar and the Bearma which follow the general slope of the country and flow towards the north-east. These rivers are perennial in their later courses but most of the drainage lines are seasonal in their character. While the floods cause great inconvenience and loss to the region, the summers spell scarcity of water for drinking and other purposes.

The Sonar

The Sonar rises in the low hills in the south-west of Sagar district (23°22'; 78°37'). It flows in a north-easterly direction in Sagar and Damoh districts, passing through Rehli and Garhakota of Sagar and Sitanagar, Narsinghgarh, Hatta and Aslana. Its valley in Damoh, called the *Haveli*, is a fertile black soil plain forming the principal wheat-growing tract of the District. It joins the Ken river eight miles beyond the north-eastern boundary. Of its total length of 186.7 km. it flows for 102.4 km. through the District. The river does not attain any great width and flows in a deep channel, its bed being more or less stony. Its greatest width is under 320 metres, except at the junction of the Bearma, where it extends to a kilometre. The principal affluents of the Sonar are the Kopra and the Bearma on the right bank and the Bewas on the left.

The Bewas river rises in the Siarmau hills of Raisen district and flows across Sagar district from south-west to north-east. A little to the north of Banda it turns eastward through a gorge into Damoh. It falls into the Sonar about 5 km. above Narsinghgarh. Its length is about 148 km.

The Kopra rises in the centre of Rehli tahsil of Sagar and flows for about 81 km. parallel to the Sonar. It joins the major river about 1.5 km. below Sitanagar. Of its total length of 97 km. it flows about 67 km. in Damoh. The Bearma is a tributary of some local importance joining the Sonar on the north-eastern boundary.

The Bearma

The river rises in Rehli tahsil of Sagar and flows from south-west to north-east in a tortuous course in Damoh District. During the last part of its length it forms the boundary between Damoh and Panna districts and joins the Sonar on the north-eastern boundary. About 13 km. further on, the united stream falls into the Ken.

The Bearma traverses the most rugged portion of the District and during the greater part of its course it is confined between rocky cliffs. Its valley is nowhere extensive. It passes Taradeshi, Nohta, Jujhar, and Gaisabad, and is crossed by a causeway at Nohta and a railway bridge at Ghatera station. Its length is about 193 km. and the fall in its course during this distance is 213 metres or nearly six

feet in a mile (1.1 metre per kilometre). Its velocity in flood time is, therefore, considerable. Its greatest width is about 320 metres at the Mahua village about 3 kilometres from its junction with the Sonar.

The principal tributaries of the Bearma are the Guraiya, the Sun and the Padri on the right bank and the Bamner and the Kathera *nala* on the left, all of which resemble the main river in their character except in length and size. The Guraiya rises near Tendukheda and joins the Bearma at Nohta. Jabera *nala*, a tributary, drains the Jabera valley and cuts across the scarps of Mangarh. The Jabera valley is said to have been a great lake in the historical past. The Sun rises from the Bakal plateau of Jabalpur district, north of Mangarh scarp, and joins the Bearma near Ghatera. It has been dammed at Mala and its water is utilised for irrigating the fertile valley.

The Singrampur Valley Streams

The small valley of Singrampur, which is cut off from the open country of Jabalpur by the Kaimur range, possesses a drainage system of its own. The Phalku and the Kair *nalas* which drain it flow in a southerly direction and join the Narmada through the Hiran by forming a way through an extraordinary cleft in the hills known a 'Katas'. Until 1869, this valley formed part of Jabalpur district.

Tanks

There is no lake of any size created by nature in the District. The number of tanks and reservoirs is also small. Most of the villages depend on the rivers, streams and wells for their necessity of water. A number of reservoirs have been created on the feeder streams of the Bearma between the parallels of Latitude at Nohta (23°42′N.) and Ranoh (24°8′ N.) and lie at the foot-hills in the eastern part of the District. Hala reservoir is the largest in the District created across the Sun. Beharia and Bechhai are the small reservoirs on the feeder streams of the Sun. There is another Baheria to the south-west of Taradehi. Majhgawan, Dhangawan and Patna are on the up-streams of the Padrinala. Other reservoirs and tanks are Ghangri, Chiraipani, Jamnera, Deori, Phutera, Bandarkola, Barpati and Purena. These are utilized for irrigation through canals.

The Forest Department looks after the following tanks for the use of forest villages and for those who work in the forests.

Damoh range	—	Kishantalaiya Chiraibund
Tendukhera range	—	Sahajpur tank
Taradehi range	—	Dhakerwaho tank
Singrampur range	—	Singorgarh tank and Danital.

Springs

Only a few springs are of note in the District. Those in the records of the

Forest Department are the Bagdari spring and Jhapan spring in Tendukhera range, Rampura spring in Taradehi range and Deotara, Dayaont, Jamunia, and Bhanwarpani springs of Singrampur range.

*Geology**

The stratigraphy of rock formations found in the District is given below:

Recent	Alluvium and soil
Upper Cretaceous to Eocene	Deccan traps
Upper Cretaceous	Lameta beds
Late pre-Cambrian	Vindhyan system

Vindhyan System

The rocks of the Vindhyan system consist of a succession of sandstones and Shales with a horizon of limestones and cover a large part of the District. The system is subdivided as follows:

Bhander series	Upper Bhander Sandstones Sirbu shales Lower Bhander Sandstones Bhander limestones Ganurgarh shales
Rewah series	Upper Rewah sandstones Jhiri shales
Kaimur series	Lower Kaimur sandstones

The Kaimur stage consists of well defined bands of fine grained, massive, markedly lenticular quartzites with an intervening band of shales. The Jhiri shales are soft, less regularly bedded and mixed with numerous layers of soft, earthy sandstones. Pure white with a tinge of pink or redbrown, rough and massive quartzites form the upper Rewah sandstones. The Ganurgarh shales are purplish red or brick coloured and are impregnated with stringers of calcite. The Bhandar limestone is generally earthy and compact and of grey, yellow or reddish tints. Some of these limestones are found to contain specks of argentiferous galena and fibrous calcite. *Khaki*-coloured, calcareous shales make up the lower Bhander shales while the lower Bhander sandstones are usually reddish brown in colour, medium grained in texture. The Sirbu shales are *Khaki*-coloured and thinly laminated; and the Upper Bhander sandstones are composed of flaggy, thin bedded, fine-grained sandstones which are dirty white, dark red or brownish red, and greenish white in colour. The sandstones are at place purplish red with white spots and prominently jointed.

*Supplied by the Director, Geological Survey of India and based on R. V. Russel, *Central Provinces District Gazetteer*, Damoh District and B. C. Roy, General Report of the Geological Survey of India for the year 1958. Records, Geological Survey of India, Vol. 83, Part I.

Lameta Beds

These rocks consist of conglomerates, cherts, sandstones, clays and limestones which often contain bands and nodules of chert.

Deccan Traps

A few outcrops of dark grey porphyritic basalts are met with, which occur in the form of sills and flows in the Vindhyan sandstones. The basalts consist of augite, pigeonite and plagioclase felspars. Magnetite and ilmenite occur as accessories. The basalt is a fine to coarse grained rock and shows columnar jointing at places. Vesicular, scoriaceous and amygdaloidal varieties are also met with. Inter-trappean beds are found between the flows of basalt and consist of siliceous limestones, cherts and clays.

Soils

The detritus of the sandstones form the sandy soil known as Sihar which is of very poor natural fertility but responds readily to water and manure. Towards the west of the District, the Deccan trap area and Sonar valley are entirely composed of the black cotton soil. Black soil is also found in the valleys which intersect the Vindhyan hills to the south.

Economic Minerals

The sandstones and limestones of the Kaimur Rewah and Bhander series of the Vindhyan system furnish excellent construction materials. These rocks occupy a large part of the District. The Deccan traps which occur in patches in the western portion of the District may furnish some building stones for rough construction.

Building Stones

Iron ore is found in small quantities in the north near the boundaries of Panna and Chhatarpur but no appreciable amount is extracted.

Iron Ores

Large deposits of highgrade (Bhander) limestones occur in an area 24 km. long and 3 to 5 km. wide. The thickness of the individual beds is 3 to 6 metres; and the limestones contain 46 to 55 per cent calcium oxide and are non-magnesian.

Limestones

The occurrence of thin-bedded Vindhyan limestones is recorded in the valley of the Sonar river near Hatta which may be sufficiently compact for lithographic purposes. No trial of the stone appears to have been made.

Lithographic Stone

The sandstones and limestones of the Vindhyan system and the basalts of he Deccan traps form excellent road metals. Seventy-four quarries of minor minerals were on lease on various terms on 1st October, 1966. Of these 57 were for the extraction of stone, 8 for clay, 3 for limestone and 6 for sand.

Road Metal

The sandstones and shales are too impervious to form any good source of water. The group of rocks likely to contain much water is the Bhandar limestone.

Water

Since the limestone is underlain by impervious shales, conditions appear to be favourable for the accumulation of underground water in the limestone.

The District is a region of comparative stability as may be expected from its ancient geological history. Sometimes when severe earthquakes occur in the

Earthquakes

Himalayan region, sympathetic shocks, which are generally feeble, may be felt in this District.

Flora

In the year 1904-05 about half the area of the District was covered by high forests, scrubs and grasslands. The Government Reserves covered 2,058.4 sq. km. and Malguzuri forest 1,502.2 sq. km. of which 249.8 sq. km. were scrub jungles and grasslands.

The total area of grassland including that contained in Malguzari and private holdings was estimated at 709 sq. km. Under the Abolition of Proprietary Rights Order, 1950, the Malguzari forests have been taken over by the State Government and most of these have been declared Protected forests. The total area under forests in 1961-62 was 2,750 sq. km. A large area of the forests, scrub forests and grasslands in the possession of the Malguzars and tenants has either been denuded of its floral cover or has been diverted towards agricultural, dwelling and other purposes.

The Reserved Forests occupy about two-thirds of the Government forests and enjoy Government supervision and conservancy since 2nd February, 1879, under Section 34 of the Indian Forest Act, 1878. Some of the forest blocks were reserved on 18th September, 1902 and 22nd December, 1902. The public has no rights in these forests except the privileges granted by the Government. The Protected forests have been taken under the Government conservancy and are mostly undemarcated. Customary rights and concessions as approved by the Government are allowed to the villagers in the neighbourhood. The condition of Government forest is more or less depleted.

Distribution

The two forested zones of the District lie separated by the cultivated valley of the Sonar, called the *Haveli*. The forests of Fatehpur (Hatta) range on the north-western plateau are poorer than those in the southern plateau where the bulk o the forests stand. The forests on the southern plateau are managed under five Range circles. Damoh range occupies the belt along the Sonar valley.

Other ranges are Sagoni in the east, Singrampur in the south-east, Taradeh in the extreme south-west and Tendukhera in the inner south-west.

Most of the villages and cultivated areas on the north-western plateau are along the Mugron-Sadpur road and in the tracts linking Sadpur with Sunera, Damotipura and Dhoria. On the southern plateau the cultivated tracts are along the Bearma and its tributaries and also along the roads to Jabalpur and Patan, chiefly around Singrampur, Jabera, Nohta, Abhana, Mala and Kumhari. A survey of the area reveals that nearly all Protected forests are contiguous, or adjoining the cultivated tracts and that the Reserved blocks lie mostly in the less accessible interior and on the ground higher than the valleys. Still, it remains to state that the patches or Reserved and Protected forests are intermixed and can be verified in details only on a map.

Types and Composition

The forests of the District are classed as Tropical Dry Deciduous Forests. However, variations in the predominating species at different localities, their quality and density are marked. A good number of deciduous, a few evergreen or semi-evergreen and a few xerophytic to semi-xerophytic types of species are met with, mostly mixed up in various proportions. In certain localities one or the other also seems to have monopolised the area. The overwood and underwood are at most places indistinguishable and only single-tree canopy is met with. So far the recognised types of forests are:—

1. Mixed — Good, Medium and Poor quality
2. Teak — Good, Medium and Poor quality
3. Grassy Blanks-Good quality
4. Salai — Poor quality
5. Kardhai — Poor quality
6. Ghont — Poor quality
7. Khair — Poor quality
8. Bhirra — Poor quality, and
9. Very poor quality of forests.

Mixed Forests

It is the general type of forests in the District. It is quite extensive in Fatehpur range and occupies the whole of its length excluding the northern slopes along the northern boundary and the Hathidol area. Other large areas are around the cultivated tract of Taradehi and to the south and east of Tendukhera apart from areas with favourable conditions n Damoh, Singrampur and Sagoni ranges. The soil is not well drained and the proportion of clay is higher than required for favourable growth of teak. This eads to the growth of more miscellaneous species. A marked fact about the distribution of Mixed forests is that it occupies the high proportion of the northvestern plateau in Fatehpur (Hatta) range.

The good quality (M.P. II to III) Mixed forests are usually in the depressions nd valleys with deep and moist soils. Frosts are common in such localities in inter. The stocking is from 0.1 to 0.8 except in blanks. The most common species

are *saja*, *bija*, *dhaora*, *tendu*, *tinsa*, *jamun*, *bahera*, *mahua*, *teak*, *rohan*, *palas*, *khair* and *lendia*. The undergrowth consists chefly of *ainthini*, *kodar*, *ail*, and *flemingia* species.

The medium quality (M.P. III-IV a) Mixed forest is more common on soils of medium depth and on very gradual slopes, away from the *nalas*. The stocking is from 0.6 to 0.8. An increase in the drier species is marked in the tree stock but the undergrowth also consists of *ail*, *bharrati*, *jhilbili*, *karonda* and *gangerua* in addition to usual species. *Ghont* is the chief understorey.

The poor quality (M.P. IV a-IV b) Mixed forests with an average density from 0.4 to 0.6 are also common in the District on upper gentler slopes on shallow sandy soils. Teak is very poor in this type and xerophytic species increase in number. *Salai*, *gunja*, *dudhi*, *papra*, *kari*, *lendia*, *bhirra*, *ghont*, *tendu*, *aonla* and *achar* form the main stock. *Khair* and *Kullu* are worth exploitation. Undergrowth and grasses are scanty. Bamboos are absent. In certain localities one or more species predominate and,based on this fact, several sub-types, except teak, may be recognised in this (poor) quality of forests.

Teak Forest

Teak forests are recognised in areas with 20 per cent or more of teak in the tree crop. Teak grows well on the well-drained loam to sandy loam soil. Pure crops are restricted only to small areas. The forests are of varied quality. Other physical and natural environments and density of good, medium and poor quality teak forests are the same as in the Mixed forests of good, medium and poor quality grades, respectively. Forst in winter is quite common in lowlying localities.

The major teak forest belts are along the western and eastern boundaries and on the hills south of Tejgarh and south-west of Tendukhera upto the southern boundary. A fourth belt of teak forests lies along the northern boundary. Small patches of teak forests also lie on the hills of the southern plateau near Damoh, Hindoria and Gahera and near Hathidol on the north-western plateau. Of these the good quality teak forests are near Panchamnagar and Mariadoh in Hata range, near Ghatpiparia and Magra in Damoh range, near Gopalpur, Taradehi, Dudhia, Tindin and Pullar and some isolated patches of Tichai tract of Taradehi range and Bineni, Bansipura and Singorgarh in Singrampur range. It also occurs in Compartments Nos. 146, 163, 165, 166 and 171 in the Tendukhera range. Medium and poor quality teak forests are common in the District.

The most common species associated with teak in good quality forests are *tinsa*, *rohan*, *seja*, *koha*, *dhaura*, *lendia*, *dhaman*, *hurra*, *gular*, *mahua*, and *tendu*. Bamboos are mostly absent and *lantana* is found occasionally in south-western tracts. In the medium and poor quality forests the drier species like *salai*, *gunja*, *achar*, *dhobin*, *semal*, *kari*, *kullu*, *bhirra*, etc., increase in proportion. The undergrowth and climbers are the same as in the corresponding quality types of Mixed

forest. Teak is predominant in favourable localities because it has greater power of resistance against fires and maltreatment.

Grassy blanks

Where the proportion of clay is high, soil stiff black and water-logged, the conditions are not very favourable for the development of tree species. The commonest species met with are occasional bushy *saja, ber, palas* and *ficus* species. The grasses in this type are very heavy and tall, and mostly *barru* and *gunher* are found. Frost occurs frequently in such blanks and destroys any tree species that try to struggle against the adverse ecological conditions. Examples of this sub-type are met with along the Lamti *nala* in the Fatehpur range, near Nagra in the Damoh range, along the Gauraiya river in the Tendukhera range, near Kharideori and Kaliakuhi in the Taradehi range and near Bhineni and Singorgarh Fort in the Singrampur range.

Salai Forests

This type is found on dry shallow and stony soils. The density is fair occasionally reaching 0.7. *Salai* is often mixed with *gunia, aonla, dhobin,* and others. The height at times reaches 18 metres making the forest of III quality. This type is common near Brijpani and Salapari in the Fatehpur (Hatta) range, Piparia in the Damoh range and near Unjarikhera in the Taradehi range.

Kardhai Forests

This is not an extensive type and is always met with in poor, eroded and overgrazed areas. *Kardhai* forms mostly a pure crop. Typical examples of *Kardhai* forests are met with in Compartment Nos. 10, 53 and 58 in the Fatehpur range.

Ghont Forests

Ghont usually occurs as an understorey in all medium and poor quality forests but at places tends to form pure crop throughout the District. The maximum height attained is about 6.1 to 7.6 metres.

Khair Forests

On the drier fringes of all forest belts *khair* is found in patches, at places forming pure crop. Soil in such places is very shallow and the ground undulating and rugged, being cut up by numerous *nalas*. The maximum height attained is nowhere more than 9 metres. Typical examples are met with near Dudhia in the Taradehi range and near Manakpura in the Fatehpur (Hatta) range.

Bhirra Forests

On dry and sandy soils *bhirra* tends to grow pure and forms better stocking. Quality is never better than M.P. IV b and the girth seldom exceeds 2½. Typical examples of this type are met with in Compartments Nos. 163, 169 and 212 in the Tendukhera range.

The density in this type is always below 0.4 and at places absolute blanks are met with. Such forests are found on rocky out-crops precipitous slopes and

Very Poor Quality (M.P. IV b) Forests and Blanks

uppermost flat plateau locally known as *Bhataries* where soil is very shallow or the underlying rock is exposed. A sizable area comes under this class. Species met with have a greater frequency of the xerophytic type. *Ghont*, *ber*, *salui*, *lendia*, *kardhai*, *chichwa*, *bilsena*, *astoo*, *bhirra* and *kari* are the main species. Undergrowth is mostly absent except for scanty *ail* and *ainthni*. *Makore* climbers are numerous. *Thuar* (Euphorbia) is found locally in thick patches. Grasses are very sparse and even rare; mostly *bhusbhusi* is met with. Sheet erosion is the commonest feature in this type of forest. Some good lac areas, however, come under this class. Very striking examples of this type are met with near Batiagarh in the Fatehpur range, near Damoh in the Damoh range, and in Compartment Nos. 205, 211 and 222 in the Tendukhera range, 221 and 259 in the Taradehi range and 299 in the Singrampur range.

An account of some of the important trees is given below.

Saj (*Terminalia tomentosa*), the most important tree does not attain to any appreciable size in Damoh. Its timber is largely used for houses and furniture. Seja or lendia (*Lagerstromia parviflora*), is a common tree and is important as one of the best timbers of the Mixed forests. Its wood is used for house-posts, raters and agricultural implements. *Anogeissus acuminata* grows on river banks and is a beautiful tree with rough and drooping branches. This tree is locally known as *dhaura*; *Anogeissus latifolia*, a kindred species, is also found in Damoh. Teak is the principal timber tree and is found scattered or in small groups, being most common in Maria. Moyan (*Lannea grandis*) is very common in Hatta tahsil. The timber of this tree is of good quality when it grows to a large size, but it is usually found as a small tree with little or no heartwood. The wood is sometimes used for planks and posts, and is a bad fuel. The bark is used for tanning and the leaves for fodder. Saleh or Salai (*Boswellia serrata*) is a common tree on the dry hill-sides, growing where others refuse to thrive. It is considered of little value locally. Ghont (*Zizyphus xylopyra*) is a small tree with grey or reddish brown bark, and thick oblong exfoliating scales. This tree is a very frequent one and lac is grown on it. It has a large round fruit and three pointed leaves like those of the *bel* tree (*Aegle marmelos*) but smaller. *Khair* (*Acacia Catechu*), a kindred species to the babul (*Acacia arabia*), is a very common tree whose wood gives the catechu of commerce. Tandu or ebony (*Diospyros melanoxylon*) is fairly common. The black heartwood is very valuable, and is used for furniture. The fruit is edible. Achar (*Buchanania latifolia*) is a very common tree in the forests and is only leafless for a short time. Its characteristic bark, dark grey or nearly black in colour, and thick, rough and tessellated with regular boss-like prominances, makes this tree conspicuous. The kernel of the fruit is called *chironji*. Aonla (*Emblica Officinalis* or *Phyllanthus emblica*) is a small but pretty and ornamental tree found both in the forests and villages. The bark and leaves are used for tanning and as a medicine, and the fruit is eaten as a *chutney*. This tree is held sacred and on a certain day of the year people go and eat food under it, believing that they will thereby obtain remission of their sins. Koha (*Terminalia arjuna*) is another

picturesque tree growing on river banks, and can be recognised from *saj* by its smooth grey bark, by its fruit angled rather than winged, and by its narrow leaves. It has a small white flower. Kullu (*Sterculia Urens*) is another tree characteristic of the hills and plateaus, and is conspicuous by its light-coloured smooth bark. Found on the outskirts of forests is the *ber* or wild plum (*Zizyphus jujuba*), a common village tree, as is also the *bel* (*Aegle marmelos*), the tree sacred to Siva. The fruit of the latter is used as a medicine. Chheola or palas (*Butea frondosa*) is a tree of moderate size, common both in forests and on plain, conspicuous in dark red flowers which are locally called *tesu* and give a good yellow dye. It exudes when cut a ruby-coloured gum, which is used as a medicine for dysentery. Ropes are made from the fibres of the roots, and are said to withstand the rains better than ordinary hemp. Lac is largely grown on this tree. Kumhi (*Cochlospermum gossypium*) is a small tree with thick spreading branches and is characteristic of the driest and stoniest slopes. It is always conspicuous whether leafless, but covered with large brilliant yellow flowers, or in full foliage with glossy green leaves. Haldu (*Adina Cordiafolia*) is a fairly common, beautiful and imposing tree with white rough bark and large round leaves. Its wood is used for making planks.

Other chief species found in the forests of the District in the order of frequency of occurrence are given in Appendix B.

Shrubs & Weeds

Dhawai (*Woodfordia floribunda*) is a large shrub with a much fluted stem, and very thin grey bark peeling off in scales. This is a conspicuous shrub on dry hillsides with red flowers from which a dye is obtained for colouring silk. Karonda (*Carissa carandas* or *C.opaca*) is a large thorny shrub whose branches are used for fencing. The fruit is eaten in tarts and jam. Other varieties are listed in Appendix B.

Climbers are numerous. More than seventy per cent of the climbers met with consist of makore or ironi (*Zizyphus oenoplia*). Other climbers and parasites met with are given in Appendix B.

Grasses

The best grazing grasses in the District are musyal (*Iseilema laxum*) and kel or kaila (*Andropogon annulatus*). The leaves of kel are long and those of *musyal* are short; the latter is a small grass which keeps fresh for a long time. Parwaiya or parbi (*Heteropogon contortus*) is also a good grazing grass especially when young. After it has flowered it is used for thatching. Guner or gunaiya (*Anthistiria sacudens*), though poor, is used for fodder when young. Its spikelets turn to a bright reddish colour after flowering. Sontha (*Ophiorus corymbosus*) is chiefly used for thatching and rarely as fodder. Kans (*Saccharum spontaneum*) is much feared in Damoh as it infests black soil fields whenever they are left fallow or become exhausted by cultivation, and long resting fallows are necessary to eradicate it. It is used for thatching and also for making mats and *machans* or elevated platforms on which the watchers of the crops sit. It is also used as twine. Kans grass is spread below the dead bodies of Hindus when they are carried for cremation. Sawan or dhunia

(*Panicum frumentaceum*) grows in *jhils* or damp places. Its seeds are gathered by the Chamars in baskets and eaten. Kush grass (*Eragrostis Cynosuroides*), the sacred grass of Hindu *Batuks*, is fairly common on the banks of streams and tanks. It produces a fairly strong fibre which is much used for making ropes. In *Pitra Paksha* ceremonies the chief mourner wears a ring of it on his finger.

Other grasses are usually sparse except in closed coupes and suitable depressions. The main among such species are given in Appendix B.

Trees of the Open Country

Mahua trees are numerous in the hilly country but not in the *Haveli*. Mango-groves are less frequently found in Damoh District. Nim (*Azadirachta indica*) is a common village tree, and is also found in roadside avenues for which it makes an excellent tree, giving shade in the hot season when other trees are bare. Banyan *pipal* and tamarind are other village trees, though the last is not plentiful. The pretty munga (*Moringa pterygospermia*) is largely cultivated in villages for its fruit is a favourite article of food. The *khajur* or datepalm (*Phypix sylbestris*) is not common.

History of Management

The Waste Land Rules were introduced in the Central Provinces in 1862. In 1863 the forests of Jabalpur, Mandla, Sagar and Damoh formed part of the Northern Division. The first Forest Act was made applicable to most of the unreserved forests (of that time) in 1865. They were managed by the Deputy Commissioners and were leased to annual farmers for revenue purposes. These were reserved under the Indian Forest Act of 1878 and *bewar* (shifting) cultivation was stopped from the 20th February, 1869. Later the forests came under the management of the Forest Department. The Licence System was introduced and the Damoh Forest Division was formed which also included the north-eastern part of Narsimhapur district. Upto 1932 the Reserved Forests of the Division had been worked under two working plans. In 1932 Umraho-Jamunia Reserves were transferred to Sagar Forest Division. Taradehi, Singrampur and Tendukhera Ranges were merged in Jabalpur Forest Division. After 24 years, vide Government Notification No. 1890-1295/XI, dated 6th April, 1956, all the Reserved Forests of Damoh District were brought under the newly created Damoh Forest Division.

The Working Plan of the Division covers Reserved Forests (787.97 sq. miles), while the Working Scheme covers Protected Forests (640 sq. miles). The Working Plan has the following Circles.

Table No. I-1
Area of Working Circles

	Acres	Hectares
(a) Selection Working Circle	504,316	204,089.6
(b) Coppice-with Reserves	8,517	3,446.7

(c) Lac	177,662	72,605.9
(d) Kullu	263,065	10,645.9
(e) Khair	501.717	203,037.8
(f) Bamboo	43,266	17,509.1
(g) Pasture	23,062	9,334.1
(h) Miscellaneous	22,179	8,975.5

Working Plans

Upto 1932 the Reserved forests had been worked under two working plans. Before 1936 the division was divided into 18 regular series and 80 nistar felling series according to Fernandez's plan. Twenty per cent of the forest under the regular series was worked under the system of coppice-with-standards and there was no regular exploitable forest in the nistar felling series. *Khair* and bamboos were worked on overlapping working circles and lac was cultivated departmentally. The forests, worked under the regular felling series, have distinctly improved. According to Takle's plan (1935-36 to 50-51) an area of 14,653 acres was allotted to the selection-cum-improvement working circle on a felling cycle of 20 years with 10 cm. as selection girth. An area of 267,115 acres was allotted to the coppice-with-reserves working circle, on a rotation of 40 years. There were 3 felling series in the former and 28 in the latter and 15 coupes of each were worked upto 1950. During the period of Second World War and afterwards the fellings have been rather heavy and the former areas are definitely deficient in mature trees. In addition there were overlapping working circles for lac, adiaic, *kullu* and bamboos. Due to the many territorial changes and other reasons the work of improvement undertaken were not many, during Takles' Plan period (1935-36 to 1950-51).

The forests were again worked under the Working Plan of S. H. Mahalaha for fifteen years ending 1965-66. The areas were worked under coppice-with-reserved working circle under a rotation of 45 years. They were divided into 38 felling series, with 45 annual coupes in each. Teak and other valuable forests were treated under thinning-cum-improvement. Understocked areas were spared along the streams and slopes affected with erosion. Cutting back and weeding operations were carried out. An area of 38,517 acres were covered under plantation-cum-improvement working circle. Other working circles were Lac, Lac (overlapping), Kulu, Bamboo (overlapping), Khair, Pasture and Miscellaneous. Fire protection, grazing control, plantation and soil conservation, improvement of road-net, water supply and vigilance were stepped with better results.

Protected forests

There were large areas of forests under the Proprietary rights granted during the Malguzari Settlement of 1863-75. The proprietors had exhausted the forest stock under the Rules provided in the wazib-ul-urz. Prior to 1951 they sold it extensively for easy money as the last resort. These were vested in the Government on 31st March, 1951 under the Abolition of Proprietary Rights (Estates,

Mahals, Alienated Lands) Act, 1950 (I of 1951). Large blocks and better quality forests were transferred to the Forest Department, and the remaining to the Revenue Department. To settle the *Nistar* requirements *Nistar Patraks* were prepared by the Nistar Officers. The Nistar zones were attached to the groups of villages superceding the Wazib-ul-urz. On the transfer of these forests to the Forest Department, short-term working plan schemes are being prepared to improve the expropriertary forests. The formula to adjust the principles of *Nistar* with those of forest conservancy is under evolution.

The Working Scheme provides the working circles, namely, Teak, Mixed, Lac, Fodder and Pasture, Adhoc, and Miscellaneous. Each working circle covers several patches of forests. These circles are to be worked on different lines which suit to their best utility as well as their preservation to perpetuity.

Conservancy Celebrations

The importance of forest conservancy is stressed by the Government through the celebration of Van Mahotsava Week in all parts of the State. Every year seeds, stems and young plants are distributed among the people for planting them in their own yards either free of cost or at a nominal price. Public meetings are held to explain the benefits of protecting and planting trees. Suitable posters are exhibited and pamphlets are distributed among the public who are also encouraged to plant trees during the week. The Forest Department and some schools also plant a large number of trees every year.

The centenary of forest conservancy was celebrated in Damoh Forest Division in the year 1960-61. To mark the occasion strip-planting of teak both by stamp and *dona* planting was done in an area of 100 acres (40.5 hectare) in coupe No. 1, Singrampur SCAR. F. S., Compartment No. 310 of Singrampur range. The 17th Van Mahotsava was celebrated on 24th July, 1966 in the District.

Game Laws and Measures for the Protection of Wild Life

The Wild Birds and Animals Protection Act of 1887 was the first step towards game preservation. This was replaced by a more comprehensive one, the Wild Birds and Animals Protection Act, 1912. Shooting and hunting in Reserved forest are controlled under the Central Provinces Shooting Rules contained in Appendix-VII of C.P. Forest Manual, Vol. II, 1951. In 1935 a new Act called the Central Provinces Game Act of 1935 was enforced. It has helped in conserving wild life in the Reserved forests. Their utility is apparent by contrast when one looks at the unchecked wanton destruction of wild life that goes on outside the Government forests. In addition, the Forest Department celebrates the Wild Life Protection Week every year to seek co-operation from the people for this purpose.

Shooting Blocks and Sanctuaries

There is no game sanctuary or national park in the District nor is there any part suitable for the purpose. The total area of the forest divisions is divided into shooting blocks with well-defined boundaries.

Fauna

The forests of the District are fairly well-stocked with game. Neither the wild buffalo nor the bison is found in Damoh. The tiger (*Felis tigris*) called locally *nahar* is fairly common. Man-eating tigers are scarcely known. Tigers are found on the hills and rocky ravines in wet weather. They tend to select particular haunts, and when one is shot another is likely to take its place after a brief interval. The leopard or panther (*Felis pardus*), called locally *tendua*, is found all over the District. It causes great destruction to cattle, being in this respect a greater pest then the tiger. In November, 1966 it was estimated that the number of tigers was about 60 and that of panthers about 40. The leopard cat (*Felis Benghalensis*) or *cheeta billi* is also seen in Damoh. On one occasion it was easily destroyed by a fox-terrier, it is recorded. The jungle cat (*Felis chaus*) or *Jungli billi* is common and very destructive to pea-fowl, partridges and hares. The Indian lynx (*Felis caracal*) is very rare. It frequents scrub jungle and can be tamed. In some parts of Central India they are said to be trained to stalk hares and gazelles. The small Indian civet (*Viverricula malaccensis*) is very common and the Indian palm civet (*Paradoxurus niger*) is found in several parts of the District. The striped hyaena (*Hyaena striata*) is found in all parts of the District. The destructive wolf (*Canis pallipes*) is very rare. Occasionally a wolf may carry away a lonely child. The wild dog (*Cyon Dukhunensis*) is found in the forests and is very destructive to game. It has little or no fear of man and all attempts to tame it fail. Jackals and foxes are very common. The sloth or Indian bear (*Ursus labiatus*) or *richh* or *adamzad*, is found all over the District. It lives in caves in the hot and wet weather, and when it has young cubs. In the cold season it lives in grass and bushes. The common otter (*Lutra vulgaris*) is found in all parts of the District in rivers and streams and sometimes also in tanks. It lives in burrows with several entrances just above the water and usually one underneath.

Deer and antelope

The District has most of the deer of the State but not the *barasingha* or swamp-deer. Sambhar or rusa deer (*Cervus unicolor*) are found all over the District. *Cheetal* or spotted deer are not so common and are usually to be met with on the banks of rivers. The *nilgai* is found in all parts of the District. Herds of black buck are common in the open country, and are destructive to the crops. The herds do not run to the same size as in the neighbouring district of Sagar. The four-horned antelope (*Tetracerus quadricornis*) is fairly common, and the *chinkara* or Indian gazelle is numerous in all parts of the District. The rib-faced or barking deer (*Carvulus muntiac*) is rare. It is also known as *Kakar*. Two specimens have been seen in the north-western range.

Other animals

The *bandar* (*Macacus rhesus*), the common monkey of Northern India, is found in all parts of the District usually on the banks of rivers and streams. This monkey is not regarded as sacred by the Hindus. The langur or Bengal or grey ape (*Semnopithecus entellus*) is found in all parts of the District. This money does not confine itself

to the banks of rivers and streams, but may be seen in dense jungle away from water. It sometimes attacks the roofs of houses causing great destruction to the tiles. It is also very injurious to the crops but is not destroyed as it is held sacred. In some parts they are trapped and exported, but it is doubtful whether this practice is of much use in reducing their number. The mongoose (*Herpestes mungo*) is common in all parts of the District, easily tamed and very destructive to poultry and snakes. The ruddy mongoose (*Herpestes smithii*) is rare.

Fishes

The common species found in the waters of Damoh District are given in Appendix B. *Catla catla, Labeo rohita, Cirrhina mrigala, Barbus tor* (*Mahaseer*), *Labeo fimbriatus, Labeo goinus, Barbus sarana, Barbus ticto, Wallagona attu, Notopterus chitala, Notopterus pnotopterus, Ophiosephalus marulius, O. striatus, O. Gachua, O. Punchatus, O. clarius Majar Heteropneustus* and *possilis*.

Fresh water crab (*Paralalpaus Apinigara*, small fresh water prawns (Jhinga) of Palaemon species and *Meta peaheeus* species and *Crustacean* and *Molluscs* are found in the District.

Game Birds on Land and Shore

Among land game-birds may be mentioned the painted sand-grouse which is rare and found usually in couples on open ground and the rock sand-grouse which is commonly found in large numbers all over the District in the winter season. They may be seen late in the evening near water where they have a drink before retiring for the night and Dr. Quinn thinks that they spend the night by the water. They do not seem to breed locally. The common pea-fowl is found in all parts of the District. This is not considered sacred locally, and is destroyed by both Hindus and Muhammadans for flesh and fur. It is easily tamed. The spur-fowl is very shy and found in jungles but is not common. The painted partridge though not common is found in all parts of the District. It can always be recognised by its peculiar call. This bird is very fond of perching on the palas (*Butea monosperma*) tree. The grey or spurred partridge is found everywhere. It is easily tamed and can frequently be seen in the possession of the local people. Its flesh is dry and tasteless and it is a foul feeder. The jungle quail (*Perdicula asiatica*) is found in all parts of the District. The large grey quail (*Coturnix communis*) and rain quail (*Coturnix coromandelicus*) are rare. The button quail (*Turnix dussmier*) is common. These birds have a single note. The large stone-plover (*Esacus recurvirostris*), the stone-plover or bustard florikin (*Dedicnemus crepilans*), the spur-winged plover (*Holopterus ventralis*), the eastern golden plover (*Charadrius longipes*), the little ringed plover (*Aegialitis Minutus*) the titihri or redwattled lapwing (*Sarcogrammus Indicus*), the Indian courser (*Cursorius coromandelicus*), the red shank (*Totanus calidris*), the green and blue rock pigeons, and the rufous, spotted, little brown Indian ring and red turtle doves are other birds, which have been identified in Sagar and probably also existing in Damoh District. The *saras*

crane (*Grus antigone*) is met with in pairs. It is easily tamed. The common crane (*Grus communis*) is very rare.

Snipes and ducks are not so common as in the rice-growing areas of the State in the south and east, but may be shot in a good many places. The grey leg and bar-headed goose are seen but rarely, while the comb duck or black-backed goose (*nukta*) is very common and indigenous. This bird is seen only in small flocks, and is rather partial to pools and very slow in its flight. The Brahmini duck is said to be found here only in the winter season, usually in pairs and on the rivers. The shoveller is rare. Other varieties of immigrant duck are the mallard and grey duck or gadwall, the latter of which are fairly common. The pin-tail and pigeon, the red-crested pochard, cousin of the canvas-back of America, the red-headed and white-eyed pochards, the tuffed or golden-eyed are all rare. The snow or white-headed merganser is very rare. The common teal and blue-winged or gauganey teal are very common in the cold season. The bronze-capped teal is stated by Dr. Quinn to be common in Damoh. The whistling and cotton teal are indigenous.

Duck

Mortality Caused by Reptiles and Wild Animals

Most species of the snakes found in the District are innocuous. Even then during the period of ten years, from 1956 to 1965 cases of snake-bite resulted in 995 human deaths, the number for individual years varying from 49 to 193. Over 69 per cent of the deaths occurred during the six months of the rainy season (June to September) and the immediately preceding and succeeding months. December is the month when snake-bite cases are the lowest in number. It is recorded that the highest number of mortality due to snake-bite occurred in Damoh Police Station area, including those patients admitted from outside in the Main Hospital. Other police stations with high records are Tendukhera, Kumhari, Tejgarh and Jabera, all mostly hilly and forested. Gaisabad, Patera and Rajpura have the lowest record.

During the same period of ten years only 19 heads of cattle were recorded to have died of snake-bite.

Wild animals are recorded to have caused 48 human deaths during the six years from 1956 to 1962. Of these six were caused by tigers, two by panthers and forty by others. Most of these lives were lost in Hatta, Nohta, Tendukhera, Patharia and Kumhari police station areas.

The ravage of wild animals falls most on the cattle in or near the forest area. During the period the tigers took a toll of 275 heads of cattle and were most operative in this respect in Madiadoh, Tendukhera and Jabera police station areas. The panthers killed 119 cattle and other domestic animals, mostly in Madiadoh and Jabera areas. Other carnivorous animals were also responsible for the loss of 93 cattle lives, mostly in the same police station area.

The number of human mortality during 1967-1971 is given below.

Table No. I-2

Mortality from Reptiles and Wild Animals

Year	Snakebite	Wild Animals
1967	31	2
1968	56	—
1969	52	4
1970	81	—
1971	62	—

Climate

The climate of the District is generally pleasant, the air being mostly dry except in the south-west monsoon season. The year may be divided into four seasons. The cold season from November to February is followed by the summer season from March to about Mid-June. The south-west monsoon season is from June to the end of September. October is the period of transition from monsoon to winter.

Rainfall

Records of rainfall in the District are available for six stations for periods ranging from 23 to 70 years. The details of the rainfall at these stations and for the District as a whole are given in Appendix. The average annual rainfall in the District is 1198.3 mm. The rainfall generally increases from the north-west towards the south-east in the District. About 90 per cent of the annual rainfall is received in the south-west monsoon season. July and August are the rainiest months. During the fifty year period from 1901 to 1950, the highest annual rainfall amounting to 152 per cent of the normal occurred in 1926. The lowest annual rainfall which was only 55 per cent of the normal occurred in 1913. In the same 50 year period, the annual rainfall in the District was less than 80 per cent of the normal in six years, none of them being consecutive. Considering the annual rainfall at individual stations. two consecutive years of rainfall less than 80 per cent of the normal occurred three times in the 50 year period at Damoh and Hatta and once at Harduamarar and Mala Inspection Bungalow. It will be seen from the table in Appendix that the annual rainfall in the District was between 900 and 1400 mm. in 35 years out of 60.

On the average there are about 55 rainy days (i.e., days with rainfall of 2.5 mm-10 cents-or more) in a year in the District. This number varies from 51 at Tejgarh to 58 at Mala and Jabera.

The heaviest rainfall in 24 hours ever recorded since 1909 at any station in the District was 347.0 mm. (10.66") at Hatta on 4th October, 1926.

Temperature

There is no meteorological observatory in the District. The description which follows is based on the records of the observatories in the neighbouring districts which have a similar climate. From March both day and night temperatures steadily increase till May which is the hottest month, with the mean daily maximum temperature at about 40°C (104.0°F.) and the mean daily minimum at about 26°C. (78.8°F.). Afternoon thundershowers which occur on some days bring welcome relief from the heat. With the onset of monsoon in the District by about mid-June there is appreciable drop in temperatures. In October there is a slight increase in day temperatures but the nights become progressively cooler. After October both the day and night temperatures decrease rapidly. January is generally the coldest month with the mean daily maximum at about 25°C. and the mean daily minimum at about 11°C. During the winter season the District is affected by cold waves in the wake of western disturbances which pass eastward across north India. On such occasions the minimum temperature may drop down to about a degree or two above the freezing point of water and frosts may occur.

Humidity

The summer is extremely dry, the relative humidities in the afternoons very often being less than 15 per cent. In the south-west monsoon season the moisture in the air is high, the relative humidities being over 70 per cent. With the withdrawal of the monsoon after September the relative humidities fall well below 50 per cent.

Cloudiness

The skies are generally heavily clouded or overcast during the south-west monsoon season. During the rest of the year skies are mostly clear or lightly clouded.

Winds

Except in the post-monsoon and early winter months winds are moderate, strengthening in the late summer and early monsoon seasons. During the monsoon season winds blow mostly from directions between south-west and north-west. In October winds from other directions also set in. In the winter season winds blow mostly from directions between north and south-east.

Special Weather Phenomena

The District experiences heavy rains and strong winds when storms and depressions from the Bay of Bengal in the south-west monsoon season pass through

the District and its neighbourhood. Occasionally post-monsoon storms or depressions also affect the District. Thunderstorms occur nearly all the year round, but are more common in the summer and monsoon seasons. Some of the thunderstorms in the winter and summer months are accompanied with hail. Fog may occur occasionally in the winter months.

CHAPTER II

HISTORY

Prehistory

The discovery of a few Stone Age artefacts in the surface soil of Singrampur valley (52.8 km. to the south-east of Damoh), as early as in 1866, provides sufficient evidence of Palaeolithic man in the district in the prehistoric period.[1] This was confirmed by recent archaeological explorations in the Sonar, Kopra, and Bearma rivers, producing a rich harvest of Early, Middle and Upper Stone Age tools, including hand axes, ovates, cleavers, scrapers, flakes, cores, and core-coppers. Typologically these tools are distinguished from those representing from the Abbevilliean to the mid-Achculian stages.[2] Most of these prehistoric implements are made of quartzite.[3] Some others, of diminutive size and comparable with what has been labelled "Series B" by H.D. Sankalia, are worked on varieties of chert, jasper and allied silliceous material.[4]

Apart from these Palaeolithic tools the district has yielded a microlithic site at Navgaja Hill,[5] containing flakes and flute cores of chalcedony.

Epic Period

In the Ramayanic period, Bundelkhand, which included Damoh District, perhaps. formed part of Dandakaranya. It is believed by some scholars that Ram travelled through Sagar and Damoh while going to Panchavati from Chitrakuta.[6] It is interesting to note that a writer has located Lanka on Indrana hill, fifteen miles north of Jabalpur, while a number of landmarks on the way to Lanka have been identified with places in Damoh District. Thus, Ramashrama has been located at Hindoria, Maricha's place at Nohta, Agastya's *ashrama* at Kundalpur, the great lotus-lake of Pampa in the Jabera valley and Rishyamuka has been identified with the hill on which stands Singorgarh Fort.[7]

During the time of the *Mahabharata* the District was incorporated in the Chedi kingdom, extending upto the river Betwa in the west and the Jamuna in the north. Shishupal was the reigning monarch of this region, whose capital

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1. W. L. Wilson, Proceedings of Asiatic Society of Bengal, 1867, pp. 142-43; J. C. Brown, *Catalogue of Prehistoric Antiquities in Indian Museum at* Calcutta, pp 62-66 and 103.
2. *Indian Archaeology – A Review*, 1958-59, p. 26; *Ancient India*, No 17 (1961), p. 11.
3. Ibid. pp. 7-19.
4. ibid. No. 12 (1956). pp. 35-52.
5. ibid. No. 17 (1961), p. 11.
6. Gorelal Tiwari, *Bundelkhand Ka Samkshipta Itihasa*, p. 3.
7. For details *see* T. P. Iyer, *Ramayana and Lanka*, pp. 99-112.

was located at Chanderi. Probably he owed allegiance to the supreme emperor Jarasandha of Magadha.[1]

Epoch of Mahajanapadas

Nothing further is known about the history of this region till the rise of Buddhism, when, early in the sixth century B.C., the whole of northern India was divided into sixteen great states or Mahajanapadas. Damoh area was, probably, included in the extensive Chedi kingdom, which corresponded roughly to the eastern part of modern Bundelkhand and some adjoining tracts,[2] and extended from the Jamuna in the north to the hills of Bundelkhand in the south.[3]

Mauryas, Sungas and Satvahanas

During the Mauryan period (3rd and 2nd century B.C.) the greater part of India, excluding the extreme south, was part of the Magadha Empire. Undoubtedly, therefore, Damoh District was included in the Mauryan domain, although there are no direct references about this District.[4]

Guptas

Little is known about the history of Damoh until the rise of the imperial power of the Guptas in the fourth century A.D. Samudragupta (335-380 A.D.), the mighty conqueror, is known to have carried his arms to the Central and Southern India and carved out an extensive empire. During the course of his campaign he is stated to have attacked and vanquished the Saka Chief Sridhar Varman, ruling over Eran-Vidisha region. Samudragupta then annexed the area and erected a monument at Eran, in Sagar district, 'for the sake of augmenting his fame'.[5]

The Allahabad Pillar Inscription of Samudragupta mentions a number of tribes whom he had subdued. Among these figure the Sanakanikas and the Kharparikas. The Kharparikas are believed to be the ancestors of the Kharpara armies mentioned in the two inscriptions at Batiagarh (Batihadim), in Hatta tahsil of Damoh District.

The Batiagarh inscriptions[6] dated in the *Vikram Samvat* 1385 (1328 A.D.) suggest that for many centuries, beginning from the golden age of the Guptas, Damoh was the abode of the powerful Kharpara tribes, serving under their overlords the Chandellas of Jejakbhukti and the Chedis of Tripuri, whose dominion extended beyond Damoh.

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1. Gorelal Tiwari, op. cit., pp. 4-9.
2. H. C. Raychaudhuri, *Political History of Ancient India*, p. 129.
3. Journal of Asiatic Society of Bengal, 1895, p. 253.
4. Romila Thapar, *Asoka and the Decline of the Mauryas*, pp. 234-35.
5. Fleet, *Corpus Inscriptionum Indicarum*, Vol. III, p. 25.
6. R. B. Hiralal, *Inscriptions in C. P. and Berar*, p. 58.

The Gupta ascendency in the District is further corroborated by the existence of ruined temples, built in the Gupta style of architecture, at the villages Sakor, Rond and Kundalpur of Hatta tahsil. From Sakor 24 gold coins were dug out, containing the names of three Gupta kings. Eight of these belong to Samudragupta, fifteen to Chandragupta and one to Skandagupta.[1] It is interesting to note here that the village Eran of Sagar District became a temporary headquarters of Samudragupta during his military campaign towards South.

An inscription dated in the Gupta year 165 (A. D. 484-85) records the erection of a flag-staff (*Dhwaja-Stambha*) by Maharaj Matrivishnu and his brother Dhanyavishnu in front of the temple of Vishnu, (built by Samudragupta) at Eran. At that time Budhagupta's feudatory, Surasmichandra, was governing the country lying between the river Kalindi (Jamuna) and the Narmada. Matrivishnu was apparently a local governor of the Guptas in this region,[2] in 484 A.D.

Hunas

By the end of fifth century A.D., the Hunas swept over the Gupta territory like a whirlwind. It is evident from the Eran stone Boar inscription of their leader Toramana that he vanquished the provincial Gupta chief Bhanugupta and his feudatory Goparaja in A.D. 510. Thereafter Toramana established his supremacy in Eastern Malwa.[3] Mihirakula, son of Toramana, ruled over his father's territory and a large part of Northern India after his death, probably, upto at least A.D. 530, although they made no permanent impact.

From the epigraphical evidence we learn that North India came under the suzerainty of Yasodharman after the Hunas. It is said in an undated inscription of his that his realm extended, at least between 530 and 540 A.D., from the Brahmaputra to the Western Ocean and from the Himalayas to Mahendragiri in Ganjam District, Orissa.[4]

Though the history of the Imperial Guptas is somewhat obscure and confused after Budhagupta, the influence of their rule lingered in this District for many more decades. The Parivrajaka Maharajas were ruling over Dahala (Old Jabalpur)) and its adjoining 18 forest kingdoms, which probably included some portion of Damoh too, in the sixth century A.D. Six copper plate grants of this dynasty have been discovered. They belong to Hastin and his son, Samkshodha. The latter is stated in his Betul Plates, dated Gupta year 199 (518 A.D.), to have been born in the family of Susarman. His grandfather was Damodara, and great grandfather Prabhanjana, who himself was the son of Devadhya.

1. R. B. Hiralal, *Damoh Deepak*, p. 5 and M. G. Dixit, *Madhya Pradesh Ke Puratatva Ki Ruprekha*, p. 15.
2. ibid. pp. 88-90.
3. Fleet, op. cit., pp. 145-46.
4. *Classical Age*, pp. 39-40; Fleet, op. cit., pp. 145-46.

These Parivrajaka Maharajas seem to have had their capital in Nagod State on the borders of Murwara tahsil of Jabalpur district.[1] The Khoh inscriptions of Maharaja Hastin refer to the enjoyment of sovereignty by the Gupta monarchs (*Gupta-nripa-rajya-bhuktau*).[2] The dynasty of the Parivrajakas was feudatory to the Imperial Guptas.

Vardhana Dynasty

During the seventh century A.D. the suzerainty of the country was practically divided between the two emperors, Harsa of Kanauj in the north and Pulakesin of Badami in the south.

Harsa "waged incessant warfare until in six years he had brought the five Indias under allegiance".[3] In the Aihole inscription of Pulakesin II, it is stated that the scene of battle between these two great monarchs who were aspiring to conquer each other was somewhere about the Vindhya, while the banks of the Reva (Narmada) formed the northern limits of the empire of the southerner.[4] Thus it is quite likely that the region of Damoh, lying towards the north of the Narmada was included in Harsa's empire.

Kalachuris

After the collapse of Harshavardhana's empire, Kalachuris belonging to the Haihaya race and claiming descent from Kartivirya Arjuna, carved out a principality in the Dahal country, with Tripuri as their capital. Vamaraja, the founder of the Tripuri branch of the Kalachuris, seems to have enlarged, towards the close of the seventh century, his kingdom, which included practically the whole of the territory between the rivers Gomti and the Narmada.[5] The Kalachuri dynasty held sway over a vast kingdom with considerable grandeur and prosperity for about six centuries, producing a long line of great kings who were both valiant and wise. A large body of epigraphic and numismatic evidence, describing their exploits, are available.

They had occasional wars and matrimonial alliances with the neighbouring Chandella. Rashtrakuta, Paramara and Chalukya rulers.

Damoh was, undoubtedly, included in the Chedi kingdom as indicated by both indirect and direct evidences. The indirect evidences have been discovered in Sagar District, beyond Damoh, in the shape of an inscription of eighth century A.D of the Kalachuri king, Shankargana,[6] and a number of other Kalachuri remains.[7]

1. V V. Mirashi, op. cit., Vol. IV, pp. 93-97 and *Inscriptions in C. P. and Berar*, p. 87.
2. R. K. Mookerji, *Gupta Empire*, p. 120.
3. ibid. p. 33-36.
4. ibid. p. 34.
5. Indian Historical Quarterly, Vol. XXXIII, pp. 11 ff.
6. V. V. Mirashi, op. cit., Vol. IV, Pt. I, p. 174.
7. Indian Archaeology—A Review, 1958-59, p. 72; ibid. 1959-60, p. 70.

A Kalachuri temple, known as Nohalesvara, at Nohta, a mile from the village by the side of the main road leading to Jabalpur,[1] is an irrefutable evidence of the Kalachuri rule in the District. The temple seems to have been built by Yuvarajadeva I (*c.*, 915-945 A.D.) a devout Saiva, under the influence of his favourite queen Nohala. Several *Acharyas* of Mattamayur clan of Saivism were invited to the kingdom and a large number of temples of Siva and monasteries were built for them. A Saiva teacher, named Aghorsiva, was placed in charge of the Nohalesvara temple.[2]

Chandellas

By the end of the ninth century the Chandellas succeeded in carving out a vast empire over the undulating hills of Bundelkhand. The region over which they held sway comprised all the country from the Jamuna and the Ganga in the north to the sources of the Narmada in the south, and from Betwa in the west to the temple of Vindyavasinidevi (Mirzapur district) in the east. According to Khajuraho Inscription[3] of V.S. 1011 (954 A.D.), broadly speaking, the Chandella territory included the districts of Chanderi, Sagar, Damoh, Hamirpur, Banda, Chhatarpur, Panna, with parts of Allahabad and Mirzapur and a number of small princely states.[4]

Friendly relations between the Kalachuris, who held sway over parts of Damoh District, and the Chandellas during that period have been referred to in contemporary records.[5] Kokalla I is stated to have given protection to Sri-Harsha, who is identified with the Chandella Harshadeva, the predecessor of Yasovarman.[6]

But the friendly relations between the two dynasties—the Kalachuris and the Chandellas—was only a passing phase. For a long period these two powers were constantly engaged in a bitter conflict for supremacy over this region. The first conflict that ensued during the reign of Yasovarman Chandella resulted in severe defeat of the Kalachuri king.[7] According to the Ajaigarh Rock Inscription of Viravarman dated V. S. 1317, the Chandella Sallakshnavarman *c.*, 1100-1110 A.D.) defeated, among others, the Chedis.[8]

1. V. V. Mirashi, op. cit., p. LXXXIV and note.
2. ibid.
3. *Epigraphia Indica*, Vol. I, pp. 123-35.
4. Cunningham, *Ancient Geography of India*, p. 552; Indian Antiquary, Vol. XXXVII, p. 130.
5. V. V. Mirashi, op. cit., p. lxxv.
6. *Epigraphia Indica*, Vol. II, p. 301; N. S. Bose, *History of the Chandellas*, pp. 25-26 and note.
7. *Epigraphia Indica*, Vol. I, pp. 126, 127 and 132. V. V. Mirashi has identified the Kalachuri king as Yuvarajdeva I (*Corpus Inscriptionum Indicarum*, Vol. IV, Pt I, p. lxxiii), while S. K. Mitra suggests that it was Bala-Harsha who was defeated (*The Early Rulers of Khajuraho*, p. 42).
8. *Epigraphia Indica*, Vol. I, pp. 325-30.

Another Chandella ruler Madanvarman (*c.*, 1120-1163 A.D.) is also credited with some military successes. His hold over Sagar-Damoh region is confirmed by the Semra Plates.[1] And one of his governors, stationed at Bilhari in Jabalpur district, is known to have administered the neighbouring territory, including Damoh and Sagar where the Chandella rule is still remembered.[2]

That this region continued to be under the sway of the Chandellas upto the first decade of the fourteenth century is attested to by a number of epigraphic records. According to a fragmentary Mahoba Inscription dated 1184 A.D., the Kalachuri king Jayasimha seems to have paid homage to the Chandella king Paramardi[3] (*c.*, 1166-1202 A.D.). A stone inscription dated V.S. 1344 (1287 A.D.) found at Hindoria, 11 miles from Damoh, states that portions of Jabalpur and Damoh districts were governed by *Maharajaputra* Vaghadeva under the Chandella Bhojavarma[4] (*c.*, 1286-1289 A.D.).

The discovery of a Sati Stone Inscription dated V.S. 1365 (1308 A.D.) at Bamhni village in Damoh District has further confirmed that portions of Damoh and Jabalpur districts were included in the Chandella kingdom. The Bamhni Sati record furnishes the interesting information that *Maharajputra* Sri Vaghadeva, the local ruler, described as a 'Pratihara Chief', was a feudatory of Chandella Hammiravarman (*c.*, 1289-1308 A.D.), with headquarters at Singoragarh in Damoh District.[5]

Pratiharas

It is, therefore, reasonable to assume from the epigraphic record mentioned above that in parts of Damoh and Jabalpur districts, the political power rested with the Pratihara kings who reigned there, even after the Muslim invasion, as feudatories of the Chandellas. The Pratiharas are believed to have occupied this part of the country even before the Kalachuri kings came into prominence.[6]

There is one pillar (*Kirttistambha*) inscription at Singorgarh fort, dated in Vikram *Samvat* 1364 or A.D. 1307 in which the hill is called Gajasingha Durga after the Pratihara king, Gaja Singha. Cunningham thinks that the name Singorgarh was derived from the name[7] of this local ruler. Another prince of the Pratihara lineage was Maharaja Kumara Shri Vaghadeva, who was a feudatory of the Chandella rulers Bhojavarman and Hammiravarman.

Rastrakutas

From the thirteenth century onwards various dynasties ruled over different

1. ibid. Vol. IV, pp. 153-170; Vol. XVI, p. 274.
2. Indian Antiquary, Vol XXXVII, p. 132.
3. V. V. Mirashi, op. cit., Vol. IV, Pt. I, p. cvii.
4. *Inscriptions in C. P. and Berar*, p. 56.
5. *Epigraphia Indica*, Vol. XVI, pp. 10-11, f. n. 2. ibid. Vol. XIV., p. 30.
6. *Damoh District Gazetteer*, p. 16.
7. *Inscriptions in C. P. and Berar*, pp. 56-57.

parts of the District. One of them was the Rastrakuta king Mahamandalika Jayat Sinh who fought with prince Hemasimha in *Samvat* 1198 (1141 A.D.) and raised a memorial on the battle ground at village Piparia of Hatta tahsil. On the five pillars of that monument the whole battle scene is depicted, with Jayatsimha killing his enemy, *Maharajaputra* Gopaldeva chasing prince Ranasaila, and prince Damodara riding after four other princes on his huge horse Simhamani.[1] The identity neither of Jayat Sinh nor of Hemasinh has been established so far.

Rulers of Visvamitra Gotra

The Jatasankar fort inscription gives the name of a few commanders of the Visvamitra *gotra* (lineage) and describes their exploits in glowing terms. One of them, namely, Vijayapala defeated a great hero, named Kai. His son was Bhuvanapala, whose son Harsharaja conquered Kalanjara, Dahali (Dahala), Gurjara and the Deccan. Harsharaja's son was Vijayasinh, a devotee of Bhumbhukadeva. He fought at Chittor, and vanquished the Delhi armies, scattered the Deccan forces near Magadh and drove out the Gurjaras. Kai was, perhaps, the commander of the Jatasankar fort, who left his name in the small village Kaikheda, at a distance of 4.8 kilometres from the fort.

The absence of any regal titles indicated that the persons named in the record were, perhaps, commanders of the armies which overran a number of countries, including Dahala, the Kalachuri kingdom, of which Damoh District was a part.

Khaljis

Hammirvarmadeo, mentioned in the Bamhni Inscription, was one of the last of the great Chandella princes. After him Damoh-Jabalpur tract passed under the authority of the Delhi Sultans. This is evident from a *Sati* Inscription found at village Salaiya, 17 miles from Damoh. The Inscription is dated in V.S. 1366 (1309 A.D.) and gives the name of Ala-ud-din Khalji as the sovereign lord.[2]

Further evidence of Muslim influence in the region during this period is provided by Abul Fazl's statement that when Chauragarh, the capital of Garha-Katanga, was taken by Asaf Khan in 1504 A.D., he secured "one hundred jars full of Alauddin *ashrafis*".[3] However, no record of the successors of Alauddin Khalji is found in this region.[4]

Tughluqs

The mention of Tughluq Sultans has, however, been made in a number of inscriptions found in the District. The Batiagarh Stone Inscription records the foundation of a palace in the reign of Ghiyas-ud-din Tughluq. The Inscrip-

1. ibid. p. 56; *Damoh Deepak*, pp. 11, 93-94.
2. *Epigraphia Indica*, Vol. XVI, pp. 10-11.
3. *Akbarnama*, tr. by H. Beveridge, Vol. II, p. 332.
4. *Damoh Deepak*, p. 13.

tion is in Persian and mentions clearly the date 725 A.H. (1324 A.D.).[1] This Tughluq Sultan reigned between 1320 and 1325 A.D. His successor, Muhammad Tughluq, invaded Telengana in 1329 A.D. with the forces of Chanderi, Badaun and Malwa.[2] It appears that the Muslim domination in the region became stronger during this period.[3]

Another Batiagarh Stone Inscription of V.S. 1385 (1328. A. D.) in Sanskrit mentions the name of Sultan Mahmud who may be none but Muhammed II of the Tughluq dynasty.[4] The Inscription refers itself to Jallala Khoja, who was a local governor at Batiagarh.

The Tughluq domination over Damoh is further corroborated by the discovery of a mutilated Stone Inscription in Sanskrit which mentions Sultan Mahmud (Muhammad), his commander Julachi and a local Governor whose name is not clear. During the revolution that took place in the reign of Muhammad Tughluq, Deccan Kingdoms became independent,[5] but Damoh seems to have continued under the Delhi Sultans[6] until the Malwa Sultans extended their sway over this region. This is further corroborated by the discovery of a Persian inscription, formerly placed at one of the gates of Damoh fort and bearing the date of 1383 A.D. It may, however, be noted that though Damoh was included in the kingdom of the Tughluq dynasty, the Mahomedan conquest was at this time merely nominal and no effective occupation took place until two centuries later.[7]

Sultans of Malwa

Dilawar Khan Ghuri was appointed Governor of Malwa by Sultan Mahammad-Ibn Firuz in 793 A.H. (A.D. 1390-91). Due to the disintegration of the Sultanate of Delhi during the reigns of Firuz's successors, Dilawar Khan consolidated his position in Malwa and assumed royalty in the year 804 A. H. (1401-02 A.D.). He invaded Chanderi and established his authority over the southern and western parts of Bundelkhand. The districts of Saugar and Damoh which had formed a part of Delhi Sultanate, passed over to Dilawar Khan on his declaration of independence.[8]

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1. *Inscriptions in C. P. and Berar*, p. 59; *Damoh Deepak*, p. 13 and f. n.
2. Cunningham, *Archaeological Report*, Vol. II, p. 402.
3. *Damoh Deepak*, p. 13.
4. R. B. Hiralal first identified Sultan Mahmud with Nasir-ud-din of the Slave dynasty who reigned between 1246 and 1266 A. D. But from the date of Inscription it is evident that the reference is to Muhammad Tughluq-*see* Archaeological Report, Vol. XII, pp. 44-45 and *Inscriptions in C. P. and Berar*, p. 58.
5. U. N. Day, *Medieval Malwa*, p. 8.
6. Syed Imdad Ali, *History of Damoh District*, tr. by Shamsool Hosan, p. 15.
7. *Damoh District Gazetteer*, p. 19.
8. U. N. Day, op. cit., pp. 12-14, 16 and 21.

After the death of Hoshang Shah, Mahmud Khalji strived to acquire the throne of Malwa. He was successful in his attempts and ascended the throne on 14th May, 1436 A.D.[1] During his reign the headqurters of the local Governor was transferred from Batiagarh to Damoh. Thus, Damoh[2] came under the rule of the Khaljis of Malwa soon after they assumed royal insignia, and remained under them till the dynasty was extripated.

Though we have no inscriptional evidences of the reign of Mahmud Khalji in the District, a Persian stone inscription of the year 885 A.H. (1480 A.D.) has been discovered at Damoh. This stone is said to have been originally fixed to to the western gate of Damoh fort, which has now disappeared altogether. It records that the breastwork opposite the western gate of the fort was built by Ghiyas-ud-i-duniya in A.H. 885, on the 24th of *Shawal*, corresponding to 1480 A.D.[3] The *Sati* Inscription of V.S. 1562 (1505 A.D.) found in Satsuma village, a sacred place on the Sonar river, mentions the name of his son Nasir Shah.[4]

There are two other inscriptions which refer to the kings of Malwa. One of these is a *Sati* stone record in Hindi on the bank of the Sonar, near Narsingarh, 12 miles north-west of Damoh on the road to Batiagarh, dated in *Samvat* 1543 (1486 A.D.). It refers to the reign of "Sultan Ghyasudduniya of Mandogarh durga" (Mandu fort), leaving no doubt as to the identity of Ghyas with Ghiyas Shah (1469-1507 A.D.), the eldest Son of Muhammad I of Malwa.

Another stone inscription in Hindi at Damoh dated in V.S. 1570 (1512 A.D.) refers to the reign of Sultan Mahmud Shah II, the son of Nasir Shah. Mahmud Shah II was the last Khalji Sultan of Malwa. The Inscription, therefore, provides the links with the last Khalji ruler holding sway over Damoh. With his death in 1531 (937 A.H.) "came not only the end of the Khalji dynasty but also the end of the independent Kingdom of Malwa".[5] the Inscription is a proclamation of remission of certain fees levied in "Damauva *nagara*" or town of Damoh.[6] After the death of Mahmud Khalji II, Malwa was occupied by Bahadur Shah of Gujarat.[7]

Raj-Gond Dynasty of Garha

After the appalling invasion of Timur in A.D. 1398, the wildest confusion prevailed everywhere and the petty local chiefs succeeded in carving out their own principalities. Probably about the same time, Yadavaraya, also called Jadurai or Yado Rai, established his authority at Garha-Katanga and initiated

1. ibid. pp. 91-93.
2. *Damoh Deepak*, p. 15.
3. Cunningham, Archaeological Report, Vol. VII, pp. 168-69; *Inscriptions in C. P. and Berar*, pp. 59-60.
4. *Damoh Deepak*, p. 15.
5. U. N. Day, op. cit., p. 311.
6. *Epigraphia Indica*, Vol. XV, pp. 29 ff.
7. U. N. Day, op. cit., p. 311.

a line which was destined to play an important role in the history of Gondwana. There are several traditions regarding the antecedents of this Gond hero, Yadavaraya.[1]

Of Yadavaraya's successors we know nothing except their names, which are recorded in a genealogy prepared by the order of the Gond king Hirde Shah and now found in a Sanskrit tablet on the walls of the palace at Ramnagar, 10 miles from Mandla. The inscription gives a genealogy of the Gond kings for as many as 52 generations upto Hirde Shah.[2]

Sangram Shah

It was during the reign of Sangram Shah that the territory of Garha-Mandla kingdom extended far and wide. Before his accession to *gaddi* in 1480 A.D., "the sway of the Gond Kings was confined entirely to the country around Jubbulpore and Mandla".[3] During Sangram Shah's reign, however, large portions of Narmada Valley, including Damoh, Sagar, Seoni, Chhindwara and Narsimhapur districts, and large parts of the territory which, later, came to be included in the former Bhopal State were annexed to the Gond kingdom.[4] The extensive Garha kingdom comprised 52 *garhas* or districts. Of these Damoh, Hatta, Madiado and Singorgarh are located in the present Damoh District. The number of villages attached to these four *garhas* totalled 2,220.[5]

A *Sati* inscription dated in *Samvat* 1570 (1513 A.D.) found at Tharraka, a deserted village, 15 miles from Damoh, speaks of him as "Maharaja Shri Amandasdeo" and refers to Tharraka as included in *Srigarh Gauri Vishaya durg*, which furnishes a clue to the real derivation of Singorgarh fort from *Srigarh durg*. A Parihar ruler, later, seems to have imposed his name and called it Gaj Sinh durga.[6]

Sangram Shah, also called Aman Das, maintained cordial relations with the contemporary Muslim rulers.[7] According to Abul Fazl, he gave valuable assistance to Sultan Bahadur Shah of Gujarat in the conquest of Raisen. Bahadur Shah conferred on him the title of Sangram Shah.[8]

A notable event of Sangram Shah's reign was the marriage of his crown

1. E. Chatterton, *The Story of Gondwana*, pp. 15-17; Hiralal, *Madhya Pradesh Ka Itihas*. pp. 85-86.
2. *Inscriptions in C. P. and Berar*, pp. 65-67
3. E. Chatterton, op. cit., pp 17-18.
4. C U Wills, op. cit., p. 46; *Cambridge History of India*. Vol. III p. 536.
5. C. U. Wills, op. cit., pp. 112-13. While Damoh and Hatta comprised 750 villages each. Madiadoh and Singorgarh had 350 villages each
6. *Inscriptions in C. P and Berar*, p. 61
7. Elliot and Dowson, *History of India as told by its own Historians*, Vol. V, p. 12.
8. *Akbarnama*, tr. by H. Beveridge, Vol. II, pp. 325-26 It is doubtful whether Bahadur Shah of Gujarat conferred the title of Sangram Shah for he came upon the scene in 1526 A. D. only, while Sangram Shah had secured the title by 1513 A. D. as his gold coin shows (C. .U Wills, op. cit., p. 44 and f. n.).

prince, Dalpat Shah, with Durgavati, the beautiful daughter of Raja Salivahan of Rath and Mahoba.[1] The village of Singrampur, near Singorgarh in Damoh District, is said to have been created in memory of this great ruler. Another version says that it is a corrupt form of Sangrampur meaning "the town of the battle". Sangram Shah resided in Madan Mahal and ruled the country from his capital at Garha.[2] He ruled for about 40 years with great success and 'greatly increased the wealth and political position which he inherited".[3] He died in 1541 A.D.

Dalpat Shah

His son and successor, Dalpat Shah, ruled for seven years and died in 1548 A.D. His short reign was wholly uneventful. According to Sleeman, he is said to have moved his capital from Garha to Singorgarh, in Damoh District. But even this change of capital is doubted by the famous historian, Abul Fazl. He clearly mentions that the seat of his government was at Chauragarh, to which place it was moved from Garha.[4]

Durgavati

On his death in 1548 A.D., his son Bir Narayan being a minor, the queen Durgavati assumed the reins of Garha-Mandla government. The widowed queen Durgavati governed the country for sixteen years (1548-1564 A.D.) with great skill and prudence. She was assisted in the administration by her two ministers—Adhar Kayastha and Man Brahman. Under her rule, the country was prosperous and the cultivators paid their revenue in gold *mohurs* and elephants.[5] The trade was in a very flourishing condition throughout this period. The strong fortresses of Churagarh (in Narsimhapur District), Singorgarh (in Damoh District), Chaukigarh and Ginnorgarh (in the former Bhopal State) 'all remind one of the strength and extent of her kingdom'.[6] She distinguished herself in warfare, and fought with unvarying success against all her enemies.[7]

Soon the tales of her wealth, and the hope of lordship over the rich kingdom of Rani Durgavati, attracted the attention of Asaf Khan, the governor of Kara-Manikpur. First he attacked and plundered the villages on the borders and then, under the orders of Emperor Akbar, embarked on the conquest of his kingdom. In 1564 Asaf Khan entered her territory with an Imperial army consisting of 10,000 cavalry[8] and a large number of infantry and arrived and halted at Damoh,

1. *Madhya Pradesh Ka Itihas*, p. 91.
2. *Damoh Deepak*, p 17.
3. C U. Wills, op. cit., p. 46.
4. ibid. p. 50.
5. *Ain-i-Akbari*, tr. by H. S. Jarret, Vol. II, p 207.
6. E. Chatterton, op. cit., IV, p. 20.
7. *Tarikh-i-Firishta*, Vol. IV, p. 227; Elliot and Dowson, op. cit., Vol. V, pp. 244-45.
8. According to local tradition Asaf Khan's army consisted of 6,000 cavalry and 12,000 well disciplined infantry with a train of artillery (*Journal of Asiatic Society of Bengal*, Vol. VI, pp. 627-28,

"one of the important cities of the country", sometime about the middle of the year. He was assisted in the campaign by a number of Mughal Officers and Jagirdars of the neighbouring regions.[1]

Suddenly the news arrived that the Mughal army had reached Damoh, and Durgavati's soldiers scattered in consternation to defend their families. Not more than 500 soldiers remained with her. But Durgavati, with great courage and sagacity, went forward to welcome a battle. Adhar, her Minister, unfolded the circumstances of desertion of the soldiers and of the largeness of imperial army. Her reply was, "It is better to die with glory than to live with ignominy". So resolved, Durgavati met the Mughal army near Singrampur, but was overwhelmed by the superior might of the enemy.[2] From there she retired to the village of Narhi, which lay to the east of Garha. In the battle that ensued she was wounded by two arrows of the enemy and lost the battle. Choosing death rather than dishonour, she stabbed herself into the heart and put an end to her noble life. A thousand elephants and a rich booty fell into the hands of the Imperial army. And the extensive territory of her kingdom was annexed to the Imperial dominions.

The Mughals

Asaf Khan, after two months, proceeded to the conquest of Chauragarh, 20 miles south-west of Narsimhapur, which was the treasure fort of the Kingdom. The young Raja Bir Narayan came out of the fort to fight against the enemy, but died fighting bravely. The fort was then captured after a short contest. An incalculable amount of gold and silver fell into the hands of Asaf Khan and his men.[3]

When Asaf Khan acquired such great wealth and power, he thought of setting up an independent potentate, and held Garha for some years as an independent principality. But soon after he returned to his allegiance, and was restored to his governorship of Kara-Manikpur.[4] Damoh was thus annexed to the Mughal empire and included in the Subah of Malwa. In the Subah of Malwa, Damoh was a *Mahal* in the *Sarkar* of Garha, yielding a revenue of 13,55,000 *Dams*.[5]

The Lodhis and Gonds of Bundelkhand including Batiagarh, in the northern portion of Damoh, raised the standard of revolt against the Mughal Emperor in 1642 A.D. Akbar then despatched an army under Shah Taiyab, a general

1. The principal officers who accompanied Asaf Khan were Muhib Ali Khan, Muhammad Murad Khan, Wazir Khan, Babai Qaqshal, Nasir Bahadur, Aq Muhammad and a large number of fief holders *see Akbarnama*, Vol. II, pp. 327-331.
2. ibid.
3. ibid. pp. 332-33.
4. *Damoh Deepk*, pp. 19-20.
5. *Ain-i-Akbari*, Vol. II, p. 211.

in the Imperial army for their suppression. The Imperial troops defeated them at Narsinghgarh (Nasratgarh). After their defeat, most of them fled to the thick forest in the south of Damoh District.

Shah Taiyab, the commander of the troops, then established himself at the place and gave the name of Nasratgarh to the habitation, which is now called Narsinghgarh. This place is situated on the northern bank of the river Sonar, at a distance of 19 miles from Damoh. A fort and a mosque which still exist in ruins were constructed by him at the place. The Dewan Taiyab later threw off the yoke of submission. He was, therefore, killed by the Mughal army and he lies buried on the western bank of river Sonar.[1] The headquarters of the Mahome dans were at Damoh, Narsinghgarh and Lakhroni, and evidences of their presence are still to be found in the ruins of forts, tombs and mosques. The Mahomedans also gave Arabic or Persian names to a number of villages which still retain them.[2]

The rule of the Mughals lasted in Damoh for nearly ninety years. During the years 1662-87, the country of Garha-Katanga was placed in charge of a large number of Mughal Officers in succession.[3] Though Garha was annexed to the Mughal Empire by Akbar, the Gond Chiefs were under a nominal subjection and their history runs in a channel of its own.

Chandra Shah

Akbar restored Chandra Shah, an uncle of Bir Narayan and yonger brother of Dalpat Shah, to his former kingdom excluding 10 *Garhas* of the kingdom. Thus, the Gonds continued to rule over Damoh District though under the nominal authority of the Mughal Emperor. The *garhas* or districts ceded to Akbar afterwards formed the principality of Bhopal.[4]

Madhukar Shah and Prem Narayan

On Chandra Shah's death, his second son Madhukar Shah succeeded after treacherously putting his elder brother to death. He was the first ruler of the dynasty who visited the Mughal Court for paying his respects in person.[5] His son and successor Prem Narayan, who was in Delhi at the time of his father's death, waited upon Jahangir and made an offering of seven elephants in 1617 A.D., whereupon he was promoted to a *mansab* of 1000 personnel and 500 horses and was provided a *jagir* out of his native county.[6] He left his eldest

1. Syed Imdad Ali, op. cit., p. 19; *Damoh District Gazetteer*, pp. 19 and 205.
2. Mirzapur, Turkai, Shahpur, Khizarpur, Husena, Daudpur, Alampura and others. *See Damoh District Gazetteer*, p. 19.
3. C. U. Wills, op. cit., p. 72. For details, *see Akbarnama*, Vol. II, pp. 404-06; Vol III, pp 629, 655 and 701; *Ain-i-Akbari*, Vol. I, pp. 382, 450-51; *Maasir-ul-Umara*, tr. by Baijratna Das, Vol III, p. 22; Vol. IV, p. 147.
4. *Damoh Deepak*, p. 20; *Journal of the Asiatic Society of Bengal*, Vol. VII, pt. II, p. 630.
5. *Journal of the Asiatic Society of Bengal*, Vol. VI, Pt. II, p. 630.
6. *Tuzuk-i-Jehangiri*, tr. by Rogers and Beveridge, Vol. I, p. 379.

son Hirde Shah to represent him at the Imperial Court. Soon after, his country was invaded by Jujhar Singh, the Bundela Chief of Orchha, in 1634 and the fort of Chauragarh was captured after his treacherous assassination.

Hirde Shah

But Jujhar Singh's triumph was short-lived. Hirde Shah, son of Prem Narayan, complained to Shahjahan of his father's brutal assassination by Jujhar Singh. Shahjahan, therefore, despatched Sundar Kavi Rai to induce Jujhar Singh to return Chauragarh to its lawful owner and to pay his overlord a fine of one million rupees. The Emperor also made it clear to Jujhar that in case he wanted to retain those lands. which were forcibly taken, he was to cede an equivalent portion from his own country.[1] Shahjahan even chastised Jujar Singh.[2] He, however, refused to obey the orders of the Emperor and dismissed the royal messenger. He sent instructions to his son Vikramjit (Jugraj) to join him secretly from the Deccan. Shahjahan therefore sent a large army of 20,000 with three eminent generals under the supreme command of Aurangzeb. The Imperial army defeated the Bundela Chief at Koluri and forced him to accept even the stricter terms. He was to pay now a fine of three million rupees and to surrender the *sarkar* of Biyanwan in lieu of Chauragarh.[3] Jujhar Singh, however, removed all provisions and destroyed the guns of the fortress, burnt all the property he had and blew up the buildings which Prem Narayan had built within the fort. He then marched hurriedly with his son towards south via Shapur, with whatever goods he could carry. The Imperial army soon occupied Chauragarh and pursued the Bundela Chief. The Bundelas fought a desperate battle but were over-powered. They then fled into the woods, where they were killed with great cruelty by local Gond inhabitants.[4] He ruled the kingdom for nearly 44 years and died in 1678 A.D. During his rule, Chhatrasal Bundela of the neighbouring Panna State attacked and plundered the region round about Patharia and Dhamoni in 1671. Again in 1677, he plundered Patharia and Damoh and devastated the region of Sagar and Dhamoni.[5]

Chhatar Shah

Hirde Shah was succeeded by his son Chhatar Shah who ruled the kingdom for seven years. In August, 1682 Chhatrasal Bundela besieged the fort of Damoh and captured it after a severe fight. He then appointed a faithful servant as the *killedar* of the fort. In the meanwhile, Chhatrasal also captured places in Nasratgarh *pargana*.[6]

On the death of Chhatar Shah, his son, Kesari Shah (1685-88) ascended the *gaddi*. But he was killed in 1688 due to certain family dissensions. His uncle

1. E. Chatterton, op. cit., p. 27.
2. B. P. Saksena, *History of Shahjahan of Dehli*, p. 84.
3. *Ain-i-Akbari*, Vol. II, p. 188.
4. B. P. Saksena, op. cit., pp. 85-89; Elliot and Dowson, op. cit., Vol. VII, pp. 47-50.
5. B. D. Gupta, *Maharaja Chhatrasal Bundela*, pp. 42 and 47.
6. Ibid. p. 56. The fort of Damoh was also captured by the Bundelas sometime before this, but it was soon recovered by the Mughal Officer, Ikhlas Khan.

Harisingh succeeded him but was soon after assassinated by the discontented people. Then Narind Shah, son of Kesari Shah, was proclaimed as the ruler of the country. Pahar Singh, son of Hari Singh, was also driven away from the place.[1]

Narind Shah

During Narind Shah's rule, the family dissension became so acute that he often had to take the aid of neighbouring rulers, which led to the cession of territory to the Mughals, to the Bundelas and to the Raja of Deogarh. He ceded five *garhas*, of which Damoh was one, to Raja Chhatrasal Bundela. In order to establish his authority in the country, he sought the help of the Mughals and ceded them five *garhas*, including Madiado and Hatta. Thus, the territory included in the present Damoh District was ceded by Narind Shah either to the Mughals or to the Bundela Chief, Chhatrasal.[2]

Maharaj Shah

Narind Shah died in 1731 and was succeeded by his son Maharaj Shah. He inherited only 29 *garhas*, out of the 52 *garhas* of the late ruler Sangram Shah.[3] During the reign of Maharaj Shah, the Maratha incursions began in the region. The Bundela supremacy lasted for a period of about 60 years and did not extend to the south of the District, where the small Lodhi and Gond Chieftains continued to hold their estates in practical independence.

Maratha Rule

It was not till 1732 A.D. that Damoh District passed into the hands of the Marathas. The activities of Chhatrasal to extend the Bundela dominion were resented by Mohammad Khan Bangash, the then Mughal *Subahdar* of Allahabad. A strong antipathy arose between the two often leading to open fights and bloodsheds for years. The account of these campaigns does not form part of the history of this district.[4] It is enough to state that in 1728 Bangash invested Jaitpur, 19 miles west of Mahoba, and after a long and arduous fight succeeded in capturing it.

Baji Rao and Maharaja Chhatrasal

Baji Rao led a large army into Bundelkhand and vanquished the Mughal army. In return for this aid, Chhatrasal agreed to give Bajirao one-third of his possessions. This memorable cession was called the Tehra, all the territory held by Chhatrasal being divided into three equal parts, one given to each of his two sons, namely, Hirde Shah and Jagat Raj, and one-third to Bajirao Peshwa, whom also he formally adopted. By this division the tracts of Jalaun-Kalpi, Hatta,

1. *Damoh Deepak*, pp. 21-22.
2. ibid.
3. ibid. p. 22.
4. For details, *See* Journal of the Asiatic Society of Bengal, 1878; also W. Irvine, *Later Mughals*, Vol. II, pp. 220-33.

Sagar, Jhansi, Sironj, Koonch, and Hirdenagar, yielding a revenue of 33 lakhs fell to the share of Bajirao Peshwa.[1] Shahgarh, Garhakota, and part of Damoh were given to Hirde Shah with the title of Raja of Bundelkhand, and Panna, Charkhari, Bijawar, Jaitpur and a part of Damoh went as share of Jagat Raj.

In course of time, however, the Marathas extended their rule over the whole of Damoh either by ejecting or reducing to submission the small semi-independent chieftains.[2] Chimnaji Appa, brother of the Peshwa,

Govind Pant Kher

took charge of the assigned districts and appointed Govind Pant Kher, known thereafter as Bundela, to manage new acquisitions. Govind Pant was a Karhada Brahman, and was the son of Narsipant Kher, the *Kulkarni* of Barmad in Ratnagri. He was adopted into the family of Balaji Govind Kher, the *Kulkarni* of the neighbouring village Navaren. On his adoptive father's death, Govind Pant was maltreated by his relation and was forced to go back to his natural family. Afterwards he wandered in search of service, and fortunately became a personal attendant of Peshwa. Once when Bajirao was unable to obtain food due to non-availablity of fuel, Govind Pant took some firewood from a burning funeral pyre. Struck by his resourcefulness the Peshwa promoted him to a military command. Govind Pant soon made his mark and gradually rose to hold responsible positions under him, and in 1733 was asked to look after Bundelkhand.

Being preoccupied with wars in Bundelkhand and elsewhere, Govind Pant allotted the charge of Damoh and Sagar to his son Balaji Govind, who was assisted by several able officers. They are enumerated as Ramrao Govind, Keshav Shankar Kanhere, Bhikaji Karkare, Ramchandra Rao Chandorkar, etc. Balaji could not stay for long at Sagar. The administration was, therefore, entrusted to Govind Pant's son-in-law, Visaji Chandorkar. For some time Damoh was administered by the Governors of Sagar. Subsequently Damoh was the seat of the Maratha Governor.

In 1799 Sagar was plundered by the Pindari leader Amir Khan, who was then in the pay of Yashwantrao Holkar. Amir Khan was driven off only by the approach of an army of the Raja of Nagpur, to whom the Sagar ruler had appealed for assistance. In lieu of the help the forts of Tejgarh and Mandla were surrendered by the Chief of Sagar to the Raja of Nagpur in November, 1799.[3]

Raghunathrao (Appa Sahib) died in 1801-02, without heir and his wives Radha Bai and Rukman Bai carried on the administration assisted by their agent Vinayakrao. The widows afterwards adopted a son Balwantrao, whose

1. B. D. Gupta, op. cit., pp. 97-101. Local traditions state that he also gave Mastani to his liberator.
2. Damoh Settlement Report, 1866, p. 33.
3. C. U. Wills, *British Relations with the Nagpur State in the 18th Century*, p. 139.

descendants still live at Jabalpur with the title of the Raja of Sagar. Raghunathrao is remembered as a conqueror, as an administrator and as a patron of letters. In his court flourished Padmakar, the famous Hindi poet. It is said that Raghunathrao forbade human sacrifice for the purpose of propitiating gods, but this made him unpopular among the orthodox section of society which was quick to trace the decline of his dynasty to this irreligious act.[1]

Account of an European Traveller

An European traveller who passed through this region in 1790, has left vivid impressions of Balaji and his territory. He writes, "His country extends from Calpee on the banks of Jumna, where he himself resides, to thirty miles to the south of the Nerbudda, where he acquired a breadth of two hundred and fifty miles more to the eastward than any other part of his dominions, including the ancient Gond forts Guna, Mundalah and Gurna Bandhoo. His son, Abhau Sahib (Appa Sahib) resides at Sagar and has the managements of Southern parts of his father's country". The flourishing condition of the villages and the appearance of the inhabitants were indicative of the absence of any material oppression.[2]

The Pindaris

In the reign of Rukmanbai, Damoh was governed by Dewan Balaji. At that period people suffered on account of the ravages of the Pindaris, who from their standing camp in the Narmada Valley, poured forth periodically carrying fire and sword. In 1809 Amir Khan Pindari entered Damoh, with a force of 12,000 horsemen and 7 guns, while on retreat from Jabalpur. In a battle between Amir Khan and the Bhonsla forces under Sadiq Khan and Amrit Rao Bakshi and Sagar forces near Jabera, about 27 miles from Damoh on Damoh-Jabalpur road, the Pindaris were routed. Consequently, they withdrew from the District[3] and the Sagar troops were sent back. Amir Khan then retired and Sagar forces were sent back. The army of Nagpur then captured the Dewan Balaji and took him as prisoner to Nagpur. From there, he was relieved after two years' imprisonment, only at the cost of a very heavy payment by the wife of Balaji.[4]

Vinayakrao

In 1810 A. D., a revenue officer of Raja Shahgarh, entered Damoh and plundered the town at intervals for two years and sacked Patharia and Hatta. In this depredation he was joined by the Lodhis of Hindoria and Nibora. Vinayakrao, the agent of Saugar Government led his Maratha and Afghan forces against these mutineers. In the village of Kanti he encountered the Ahir who after some resistance was defeated in the end by Buley Khan, the head of Afghan army.[5] Buley Khan was rewarded for his bravery and he received land in Lithora from Vinayakrao, as

1. Proceedings, Indian Historical Records Commission, Vol. XVI, p. iii.
2. *Early European Travellers in the Nagpur Territories*, p. 82.
3. Selections from the Nagpur Residency Records, Vol. II, pp. 112-15.
4. Syed Imdad Ali, op. cit., p. 23.
5. Ibid.

Jagir, which was long retained by his descendants. Vinayakrao sacked the town and demolished the buildings of Hindoria. He then turned to Nibora where he was resisted by Pahar Singh, the Jagirdar of that place. Pahar Singh was killed and Vinayakrao returned to Sagar after three years, plundering the villages through which he passed.[1] Rukmanbai ruled for 15 years till the tract was made over to the British.

Thus the Maratha rule over the District lasted till 1817 A. D., i.e., for nearly eighty years during which period, the District was administered as a whole by two principal and seven subordinate *amils* or *mamlatdars*. The former were stationed at Damoh and Hatta, and the latter at Narsinghgarh, Patharia, Patera, Batiagarh, Tejgarh, Jujhar and Konta, each of these places being the headquarters of a pargana. The *amils* were all Maratha Brahmans, and to each was attached a *tarnavis* or accountant of the same class, and a Kayasth Kanungo who kept the revenue accounts in Hindi. The authority of the *amils* was supported by a military garrison amounting in all to some 1600 infantry, 400 cavalry and 10 guns; but the full complement was seldom maintained, though regularly charged for in the annual accounts submitted to Sagar.[2]

Meanwhile, Lord Hastings had decided to extend the British supremacy over Bundelkhand with the ostensible object of putting down the Pindari menace. With this aim in view, J. Wauchope, Agent of Political Affairs in Bundelkhand, was entrusted with the work of negotiating a settlement with Nana Govindrao of Jalaun, who had all along coveted the Saugor Kingdom. The letter of John Adam, then Secretary to Government, dated the 17th October, 1814 discloses the designs of the British Government, which in lieu of overlordship guaranteed in perpetuity the territories of Nana against the attack of all foreign states and powers.[3] But things moved fast in a different direction which rendered the execution of this scheme meaningless.

In 1818, on the deposition of the Peshwa, the Sagar and Damoh districts were ceded to the British. But it was not till March, 1818 that this part of the country was actually occupied by the British, and even then only after they had overcome the resistance offered by Vinayakrao and other petty chiefs. In September-October, 1817 the Governor-General's Agent in Bundelkhand, called upon Vinayakrao to fulfil feudal obligations by paying tributes and furnishing 560 horses to the British army.[4]

Vinayakrao demurred and finally refused to comply with these peremptory demands. On this his state was forfeited and General Marshall was ordered to march on Sagar. Faced with the grim prospects of fight, Vinayakrao surrendered on 11 March, 1818 after having asked for one day's extension to make

1. Ibid.
2. *Damoh District Gazetteer*, pp. 20-21.
3. Selections from the Nagpur Residency Records, Vol. III, pp. 497-99.
4. Jubbulpore Division Records, 1818, Vol. 104, p. 7.

arrangements for the widows of the late ruler.[1] Subsequent to surrender, Vinayakrao, Rukman Bai and Radha Bai and his officers were given pensions, aggregating to two-and-a-half lakhs of rupees.

The British

To establish control over certain parts of this District, Major Rose marched, on the 13th March, eastward from Sagar, in which direction were situated Patharia, Damoh and the forts of Narsingarh and Jata Shankar.[2] After the occupation of these areas, Damoh was placed in charge of G. H. Maddock with the title of *Montazim*. Kutri, a village on the eastern bank of the Sonar, 13 miles north of Damoh, was fixed as the headquarters of the District.[3] In 1820, the headquarters of the District was shifted from Kutri to Hatta. And after being transferred more than once, it was finally fixed at Damoh in 1838.

Bundela Rising

Meanwhile, the first eruption, known as the Bundela Rising, caused by the political, social and economic un-settlement that had taken place among the dispossessed landlords and chieftains of Saugor-Nerbudda Territories, occurred in 1842. The causes of this violent outbreak are not far to seek. The owners of land in Saugar and Nerbudda Territories were mainly Gond, Lodhi and Bundela Rajputs, who enjoyed considerable freedom under the Peshwas. The process of settlement in the region had resulted in the dispossession of long-standing malguzars, some of whom were suspected of hostile intent while others had defaulted in their payments. Against those who had fallen in arrears, legal action was taken and after much harassment they were deprived of their lands and property. Partly for this reason and partly from an awareness of the British disaster in Afghanistan, the Bundelas broke out in open rebellion.[4]

The Bundela Rising started in the north of Sagar with two Bundela Thakurs who were served with decress of the civil court of Sagar early in 1842. With Sagar and Narsimhapur up in arms, the next to rise was Jabalpur under the banner of Raja Hirde Shah of Heerapur, who became the moving spirit behind the upsurge. The rising affected Damoh District, top.

Observing the movements of Raja Hirde Shah, General Tombs ordered Colonel Watson to move on to Tejgarh. And, meanwhile, when Hirde Shah with his 500 followers was on his way to enter into Bundelkhand, a British detachment headed by the Tahsildar of Damoh and Risaldar Sadulkhan reached Tejgarh on the 6th October, 1842. On the night of the 6th or 7th October, at village Deemanee near Tejgarh a clash took place in which 20 followers of Raja Hirde

1. Ibid. pp. 25-27.
2. Valentine Blacker, *Memoir of the Operations of the British Army in India during the Mahratta War of 1817, 1818 and 1819*, p. 335.
3. Syed Imdad Ali, op. cit., p. 24.
4. Quoted in the *History of Freedom Movement in Madhya Pradesh*, p. 34.

Shah were killed.[1] Hirde Shah, however, escaped. His brother Sawant Singh upon whom a reward of Rs. 5,000 was proclaimed by the Britishers for his capture,[2] too escaped from Tejgarh.

An attack upon Tejgarh was soon conceived by the 1st Junior Assistant, Commanding Damoh. On the 17th October some followers of Raja Hirde Shah made their appearance at Tejgarh. But they soon left the District.[3]

On the 22nd December, 1842, Raja Hirde Shah with his whole family was captured, with the help of the Raja of Shahgarh. His capture was a major set-back for the insurgents. The prisoners were sent to Chunar via Damoh under a strong police escort. Some indication of the anxiety which the British authorities had regarding the influence which Raja Hirde Shah exercised over the minds of the people in these territories, is provided by a letter from Sleeman. While they were conducting Hirde Shah, Sleeman, Agent to Governor General in Bundelkhand, wrote to Captain Brown, in his letter dated 23rd December, 1842, "You will have Hirde Shah and the other prisoners........confronted with some persons to whom they are personally known, as they pass through Damoh, that no doubt may remain in the minds of the people as to their being really the people they are said to be. They will I hope be sent off from Sagar on 27, of this, and reach Damoh about the 1st of next month".[4] It was their hope that, following the arrest of Hirde Shah and his men, the other leaders of the rebels would surrender one by one. By April, 1843 the disturbances practically ended.

Here it would be useful to examine the consequences that flowed from the Bundela Rising of 1842. It did lead to agricultural depression. In the political and administrative spheres, the Bundela episode produced far-reaching repercussions. Realising that one of the primary causes of the Rising was harshness of treatment of the British Government, Lord Ellenborough inaugurated the newly gained peace by making a clean sweep of the British officials in Saugor Narbudda Territories which were placed under an Agent to the Governor-General. The arrangement, however, did not work well and the area was again joined with the North-West Provinces in 1852 with which they were administered until the formation of the Central Provinces in 1861.

The Great Revolt

The year that followed the suppression of the Bundela Rising were years of smouldering discontent which ultimately burst into the flames of 1857. Early in May stories were current in Damoh that *ghee*, *atta*, and sugar had been adulterated by Government orders with pig's and cow's blood and bone dust.[5]

1. Jabalpur Division Correspondence, 1842, Case File No. 371, Pt. I.
2. Ibid. Pt. IV.
3. Ibid. Pt. II.
4. Ibid. Pt. IV
5. Erskine, *Narrative of Events attending the out-break of disturbances and the Restoration of Authority in the Saugor and Nerbudda Territories in 1857-58*, p. 2.

In May the news of events in Meerut-Delhi area reached Damoh but nothing occurred till the end of the month. Then followed news of the stirring events in Jhansi on 8th June, and with it came the report that Banpur Raja had surrounded Lalitpur station with a large body of men.

Just about this time Raja Bakhtabali of Shahgarh, whose principality lay within Sagar and Damoh districts, started raising soldiers with the intention of waging war with the British. At this time Damoh was garrisoned by two compaines of the 42nd Native Infantry. The remainders of this regiment were stationed at Sagar who broke into rebellion on the 1st July at Sagar. The Sagar rebellion created great panic at Damoh. The bankers hid their wealth on hearing of it. On the 2nd July, 1857, the Deputy Commissioner, Damoh resolved to lodge the treasure worth Rs. one-and-half lakhs in the Jail Fort. On the following day, on receiving an express message from Sagar that the rebel troops were marching towards Damoh for this treasure, the Deputy Commissioner assembled the European and Indian Officers and consulted them. It was resolved that they alongwith a Detachment should enter Jail Fort and defend it from the rebels.

At the time the Detachment was in a very excited and mutinous state. Thereupon some Non-Commissioned Officers and the Jamadar of the Detachment warned the European Officers that their men were not to be depended upon and that if they entered the jail that night, they would not leave it alive. On this the three European Officers left Damoh with their families very quietly in the night towards Narsimhapur.

Sagar Rebels reach Damoh

On the morning of 4th July the rebels arrived at Damoh from Sagar. The Infantry portion went to the Jail and demanded the Treasure, which was refused by the Subadar Major and Ranjeet Singh Havildar. The cavalry portion are said to have searched for the Officers, with the intention of murdering them; but being unsuccessful, and finding the Subadar Major and Ranjeet Singh resolute in not joining them, and in not giving up the Treasure, the rebels left the station and plundered some villages, but did no harm in Damoh. It may be mentioned here that the Subadar Major's family was at Sagar in the hands of the Brigadier, who had arrested them.[1] Probably to ensure safety of his family, he behaved loyally towards the British.

Damoh Attacked

The rebel Rajas of Banpur and Shahgarh then sent emissaries to all the petty chiefs of the District urging them to throw off their allegiance and nearly every Lodhi landholder readily agreed to throw his lot with those who were endeavouring to throw off the British yoke, except the petty Raja of Hatri.[2] On the 10th July, 1857,

1. Ibid.
2. *Damoh District Gazetteer*, p. 22.

Thakur Kishore Singh of Hindoria with all his brothers and followers attacked Damoh, took possession of the Thana and destroyed the records of the tahsil and Munsiff's office.[1]

At this time Captain Pinkey, with two companies of 31st Infantry and 2 guns arrived from Sagar at Damoh. With the aid of 42nd Native Infantry and his own force, he repulsed Kishore Singh who retired towards Hindoria, 12 miles from Damoh. Kishore Singh then, with his 4,000 followers, together with troops of Shahgarh Raja and two heavy guns plundered many villages on the other side of the District and was able to hold Kumari Thana under his authority for four-and-a half months. A reward of Rs. 1,000 was proclaimed by the British for the arrest of Kishore Singh dead or alive.[2] The authority of the Britishers having been established at Damoh proper, the fugitive Deputy Commissioner was ordered to return to Damoh from Narsimhapur. He took his charge on the 25th July, 1857.[3]

Rebellion Spreads

On the 28th July, Rao Swarup Singh, Man Singh and Soney Singh with 200 followers from Balkote joined the Shahgarh Raja and attacked Damoh. They were repulsed by the 31st and 42nd Infantry, stationed at Damoh. The attack was renewed by them on the 5th August but were again defeated. Consequently, they plundered many villages in the District. A reward of Rs. 500, Rs. 250, and Rs. 25 was later recommended for the arrest of Rao Swarup Singh, Man Singh and Soney Singh, respectively.[4] By the end of July the whole of Damoh was swarming with rebels, led by Kishore Singh the Chief of Hindoria.[5]

Wide spread Support

By the middle of August, 1857 the whole of interior of Sagar and Damoh were in revolt, the British only retaining the two headquarter stations. All the police had deserted or been driven in and hundreds of land-owners were forced either to join the rebels or to assist them with men and food.[6] The principal leaders of revolt in Damoh District, amongst others, were Raja Gangadhar of Bhangarh, Raja Devi Singh of Singrampur, Raja Tej Singh of Abhana, Pancham Singh Rathore of Karijog, Subadar Raghunath Rao of Kisanganj, Mandan Guru, Subadar Govindrao, etc.[7]

Urgent requisitions were sent to Jabalpur for help, and on the 24th August, the Nagpur moveable column arrived at Damoh, preceded by two companies

1. Damoh District Case File No. G. XII, 4, of Rebellion of 1857.
2. *ibid.*
3. Erskine, op. cit., p. 15.
4. Damoh District Case File No. G. XII, 4, of Rebellion of 1857.
5. S. B. Chaudhary, *Civil Rebellion in the Indian Mutinies*, 1857-59, p. 223.
6. *Damoh Deepak*, p. 28.
7. *Kartavya* (Hindi Weekly), Damoh, dated 16th August, 1957.

of the 52nd Native Infantry who belonged to Jabalpur. Shortly afterwards, Balakote which was with the rebels was taken and a small fort destroyed. Subsequently the fortified house of Thakur Kishore Singh at Hindoria was attacked and hundreds of rebels were taken by the Britishers and put to the sword.

Hatta Recaptured

On the 13th September, Damoh was again threatened by rebels when it was garrisoned by 200 men of 31st Bengal Native Infantry under Lieutenant Dickens. It was saved due to timely arrival of Major Erskine, the Commissioner of Jabalpur Division with added force. On the 15th the town and tahsil of Hatta was taken by the Panna troops from the Shahgarh rebels for the British.

On the 18th September, 1857 news reached Damoh that the 50th Native Infantry had rebelled at Nagod. Erskine was alarmed as he suspected that the 52nd Native Infantry (main body) stationed at Jabalpur might also mutiny. He, therefore, immediately called back the two companies of 52nd from Narsinghgarh. On the evening of 19th the Narsinghgarh party (which included 2 Companies of the 52nd) returned to Damoh. At 12 that night, Erskine received the message of rebellion by 52nd at Jabalpur. Before this news could spread, the 2 companies of the 52nd were taken away 3miles from Damoh on Sagar road and were disarmed on gun-point. The men were taken by surprise and hestitated, but seeing the guns pointed at them with port-fires lighted, surrendered their arms.[1]

British Desperation

By the 2nd half of September, Damoh District was all lying waste in consequence of the rebellion and was plundered from one end to the other by rebels. Damoh had only 200 men without guns to defend the city. A Council of War of senior military officers was then called by Major Erskine. The Council of War unanimously determined that Damoh should be abandoned, that the Civil Officers and Treasure should accompany the Madras Columns, which would return to defend Jabalpur, that the stamps be destroyed, and that, as it was not possible to remove the records, only the treasury accounts be taken away. The 200 men of the 31st Bengal Native Infantry, garrisoning at Damoh, retired to Sagar.

Shamleju, an Officer of the Panna Raja, then holding Hatta with a considerable force for the British Government was requested to take charge of Damoh District.[2] Accordingly, on the 21st September the British vacated Damoh with the Treasure of Rs. 1,30,000 and marched to Thana, 11 miles towards Jabalpur. Shamleju entered Damoh the same day with 2 guns and a considerable force.[3]

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1. Erskine, op. cit., p. 23.
2. Parliamentary Papers, 'Re' Mutiny in India, 1857-58, No. 5, pp. 277-278.
3. Erskine, op. cit., p. 24.

Thus at this time when the British were moving towards Jabalpur the rebel 52nd Infantry was on its way towards Damoh. A skirmish took place near Katangi, 42 miles from Damoh, and though defeated, the insurgents marched towards Damoh. The party reached Damoh and under the leadership of Devi Singh Malguzar of Singrampur attacked Damoh on the 24th October, 1857. The garrison of Shamleju offered some resistance.

On the 25th October Rao Swarup Singh, together with his 200 followers of Balakote, joined Devi Singh and the insurgents of 52nd Infantry and defeated Shamleju. Subadar Govind Rao is stated to have been one of the rebel leaders, who fought a pitched battle against Shamleju's troops behind Gajanan hillock in Damoh city. Consequently, Shamleju was driven out of the town of Damoh. They then went to the Jail Fort where the Jail guards were forced to give in and were all murdered.[1] The insurgents then plundered the town of Damoh, burnt the records and public buildings, blew up the *Kucherry* and gutted the Deputy Commissioner's house but did not burn it down.[2] After staying for some days at Damoh, they joined the Shahgarh rebel at Garha-Kota, in Sagar district, and daily plundered all around. After a few days the Panna troops, having been reinforced, returned to Damoh and held it unopposed till Shyamleju made over charge of the District to the Britishers.[3]

Rebels Capture Damoh

However, the outskirts of the District, particularly Hindoria and area round Hatta, still remained with the insurgents. The insurgents were so strong that even General Whitlock avoided a clash. On the 17th March, 1858 General Whitlock received orders from Government to proceed to Nagod and Panna via Hatta. The latter place was close to a village, called Jata Shankar, where there were about 500 insurgents with 2 guns. Major Erskine asked him to attack them, but Whitlock avoided and marched out of Damoh Division.[4]

Rebellion Abated

On the 20th the Deputy Commissioner of Jabalpur, taking advantage of some troops passing between Damoh and Jabalpur, reestablished his *thanas* at Javera and Singrampur, but they were soon driven out again by the strong bodies of insurgents under Devi Singh and Maharban Singh; and though several attempts were made by the Britishers to establish their post there, that could not be done.[5]

By August 10, 1858 Major Erskine, the Commissioner of Sagar-Narmada Territory was enabled to report, "I can now with confidence and pleasure state

1. Parliamentary Papers, 'Re' Mutinies in India, 1857-58, No. I, pp. 570-75; *Kartavya*, dated 15th August, 1957.
2. Erskine, op. cit., p. 27.
3. Ibid.
4. Ibid. p. 44.
5. Ibid.

Civil Disobedience Movement

the rest of the country, endeavoured to play its part. The breaking of salt-law followed the picketing of shops and distillaries, and processions and meetings became a routine. Due to such meetings a number of clashes took place between the police and the public. On 9 June, 1930 in such a clash two policemen were assaulted and stones were hurled upon them. On 29 June and 26 July also the police was assaulted and stones thrown.[1] The atmosphere was so surcharged that any incident was good enough to incite the people. On 1st August, 1930 Gokul Chand Singhai was arrested and while being taken to Jail a big procession of women entered the court compound and surrounded the car of the Deputy Commissioner. With great difficulty the police was able to remove the women and let the vehicle proceed. However, outside the Jail the demonstration got out of hand and was lathi-charged.[2] Similar lathi-charge was made when Prem Shankar Dhagat was arrested.

On 8 August, 1930, the Garhwal Day was observed. National Flag was hoisted on the Government High School Building. Then the police let loose a reign of terror in the town. The Superintendent of Police, Whurr, mercilessly beat Raghubar Prasad Modi, the Secretary of the District Congress Committee till he became unconscious. A number of other persons were also beaten by the Superintendent of Police. It is said that his bestial behaviour was on account of his utter dislike for the Gandhi cap, and anybody found wearing it was made the target. During this period many top ranking leaders from outside the District were kept imprisoned in the Damoh Jail. Noted among them were renowned advocate Abhyankar of Nagpur, Seth Govind Das, Brijlal Biyani, Sheo Das Daga and Wamanrao Lakhe.[3]

With the calling off of the Civil Disobedience Movement after the conclusion of Gandhi-Irwin Pact on 5 march, 1931 the agitation in Damoh District also ended. Soon, however, the Second Phase of Civil Disobedience Movement began after the rearrest of Mahatma Gandhi on 4 January, 1932 on his return from Round Table Conference in England. But this time the Government was ready with all necessary punitive measures. The Mahakoshal Congress Committee as well as all the District Congress Committees were declared illegal.[4] The Molestation and Boycotting Ordinance (V of 1932) was also applied to the District. On this occasion Prem Chand Singhai was arrested for taking part in the Civil Disobedience Movement. This was his second arrest, his first arrest being in the Movement of 1930.

When things were moving in this fashion, Gandhiji launched side by side

1. Note on the Civil Disobedience Movement in the C. P. and Berar, (31st December, 1930), p. 26.

2. ibid. p. 9.

3. Seth Govind Das, op. cit., Vol. II, pp. 226, 234, 235.

4. C. P. Gazette Extra-Ordinary, Political and Military Department, Notification No. 59, C. D., dated 8th January, 1932.

a programme for the amelioration of the Harijans. In November, 1933 he commenced a ten month long Harijan tour, during which he visited Damoh also. Mahatma Gandhi reached Damoh on 2nd December, 1933 via Rehli and Garhakota. He was welcomed at the octroi post and taken in a huge procession through the main market. Damoh provided a memorable reception to Gandhiji; canopy was spread over his head while mica was sprayed on the streets and flowers were showered on him throughout the route.[1]

Gandhiji's Visit

Gandhiji addressed a large public meeting at Jawahar Ganj, where welcome address was presented by Jhunni Lal Verma. As in other places, he was presented with purses. But what distinguished the occasion at Damoh was the presentation of a purse by the Christians, including some Englishmen. This gave great pleasure to Gandhiji. Later he laid foundation of a temple for Harijans.[2]

When Gandhiji launched the Individual Satyagraha, Damoh once more became active. By the month of May, 1941, the number of Satyagrahis reached an impressive figure of 2,761 in the Mahakoshal region. Of these 27 were from Damoh.

From now onwards the country moved irresistibly to a final clash. On 8 August, 1942 the All India Congress Committee passed the 'Quit India' resolution. The Government reacted by declaring the Congress illegal and arrested its top leaders. On 9th August, two prominent leaders of Damoh, namely, Raghubar Prasad Modi and Prem Shankar Dhagat were arrested. Then followed a series of arrests of prominent workers of the District. The enthusiasm of the youth was, however, irresistible. One Kapoor Chand, resident of Damoh, an employee of Gun Carriage Factory, Jabalpur, stole a bomb and used it to dislocate the Railway track. He was arrested and sentenced to one-and-a-half years imprisonment. Then a few enthusiasts removed fish-plates from the railway track near Damoh. Consequently, some persons were arrested. Prominent among them were Shami Mohammad and Sher Khan. Another noteworthy incident was the explosion of a bomb in the laboratory of Government High School, Damoh. Some students, who were believed to be behind this incident, namely, Ram Narayan Mishra, Gyan Chand Shrivastava and Mahadev Prasad Gupta were arrested and imprisoned. Amongst those who took prominent part in organising the Movement of 1942 in Damoh were Raoji Bhai Patel and Prabhu Narayan Tandon. A large number of people courted arrest and were imprisoned.

Quit India Movement

In May, 1945 Mahatma Gandhi was released from detention on the grounds of ill health. Shortly afterwards, the Labour Government came to power in

1. *Madhya Pradesh Men Gandhiji*, p. 38.
2. *Ibid.* p. 39.

Britain. The new Government held General Elections in the country in the beginning of 1946. The results were an overwhelming victory for Congress in all seats, except Jabalpur-Mandla Rural Constituency.

These developments alarmed the British Government and forced it to carry out the transfer of power to India and Pakistan on 15 August, 1947.

Subsequent events are a matter of recent history. An important event of the post-Independence period which concerned the District was the reconstitution of Damoh, which formed a part of Sagar District since 1932, into a new District in October, 1956.

CHAPTER III

PEOPLE

Population

Damoh had no separate identity as a district for 26 years prior to November, 1956 when it reemerged as a district. However, before 1930, Damoh had the same territorial constitution, which it has today. For the intervening period, it was reduced to a sub-division of Sagar District. With 4,38,343 persons on a land area of 7,274.6 sq. km. in 1961 it recedes to 39th position in the State in respect of population, and 29th in size. Sparsely populated Damoh District recorded a density of 60 persons per square km., and 4.1 acres of land per capita in 1961. With about 12.7 per cent urban component living in its two towns, the District is much less urbanized than Jabalpur Division, which has an urban component of 16.9 per cent. The rest, i.e., 87.3 per cent of its population resides in 1,144 villages.

Administratively, Damoh District has been divided into two tahsils. The population distribution between them seems to be very uneven. However, physiographically, the District may be divided into three parts, i.e., the valley of Sonar, the hilly portions of the north of Sonar valley and the hilly areas to its south. The *haveli* tract of the valley is the richest and most densely inhabited part of the District, which contains as many as 654 villages in a land of open, gently undulating country.

The Tahsil-wise break-up of population and area according to 1961 Census is shown in the following Table:—

Table No. III-1

Area and Population 1961

Tahsil	No. of Villages	Area in sq. km.	Population		
			Persons	Males	Females
Hatta	555	2,764.8	1,47,315	74,737	72,578
Damoh	842	4,509.8	2,91,028	1,48,330	1,42,698
District Total	1,397	7,274.6	4,38,343	2,23,067	2,15,276

Source: Damoh Census Handbook, 1961.

Note—1. The number of villages includes 252 uninhabited villages of which 114 were in Hatta and 139 in Damoh Tahsil.

2. The revised area of the District released by the Director of Land Records in 1962-63, is 2,015 sq. miles.

3. According to Surveyor General of India, the area of the District was 2,827 sq. miles (7,322 sq. km.) in 1961.

The rural area comprising 1,144 inhabited villages, extending over an area of 7,253.2 sq. km., contained 3,82,570 persons, while the remaining 55,773 lived in the urban areas which extended over 21.4 sq. km. The District population lived in 94,332 houses, of which 83,785 houses were in rural and 10,647 in urban area. Thus one Census House accommodated 4.65 persons on an average. Urban areas appear to be more congested with 5.29 persons per Census-House, while in rural areas the average recedes to 4.57.

Proportion of Sex

Lying between the lowest value of 839 females per 1,000 males in Morena District and the highest value of 1037 in Raipur District, Damoh with 965 females per 1,000 males compares well with a lower value of 953 for the State as a whole. The sex-ratio is higher (971) in the northern proportionately less urban Hatta Tahsil than in the southern, more urbanized Damoh Tahsil (962). The low urban sex-ratio of 906 is mainly the result of sex-selective migration. The rural sex-ratio in the District as a whole was 974. Separately, Hatta with a sex-ratio of 976 and Damoh with 973 presents a uniform male-excess in the District. The Table below compares the sex-ratio in rural and urban areas in 1951 and 1961 Census.

Table No. III-2

Tahsil-wise Rural-Urban Sex-Ratio 1951 *and* 1961

Tahsil	1961			1951		
	Total	Rural	Urban	Total	Rural	Urban
Hatta	971	976	903	986	987	974
Damoh	962	973	907	976	982	945
Damoh District	965	974	906	980	984	950

Source: Census of India, 1961, Madhya Pradesh, Pt. II A.

Except for the decades 1921-31 and 1931-41, the trend of sex-ratio variation has been one of persistently increasing masculinity, which is clearly revealed in the following Table.

Table No. III-3

Population growth and Sex-Ratio, 1901-1961

Year	Population			Sex-Ratio (No. of females per 1,000 males)		
	Persons	Male	Female	Total	Rural	Urban
1901	2,86,248	1,43,953	1,42,295	988	989	980
1911	3,34,123	1,68,604	1,65,519	982	983	952
1921	2,88,054	1,47,390	1,40,664	954	957	914
1931	3,06,556	1,55,293	1,51,263	974	977	933
1941	3,43,211	1,73,261	1,69,950	981	984	948
1951	3,57,463	1,80,581	1,76,882	980	984	950
1961	4,38,343	2,23,067	2,15,276	965	974	906

Source: Census of India, 1961, Madhya Pradesh, Pt. II A.

At the turn of the century, in the Census decade ending 1911, the sex-ratio showed no unusual variation, but moved parallel to State sex-ratio.

Variation in Sex-Ratio

But the decade 1911-21, which has gone down in the census history as a decade of appalling mortality, mainly owing to the fatal influenza epidemic of 1918-19, showed a steep decline in the sex-ratio of the District from 982 in 1911 to 954 in 1921. In respect of Damoh, the decline was steeper than that of the State as a whole. "This observation seems to corroborate the oftstated view that in epidemics, like the one of 1918-19, females rather than males (and the persons at the two extremes of life) succumb in much greater numbers."[1] Separately, the decline was more steep in the urban areas than in the rural areas, where the sex-ratio declined from 952 to 914 in 1921, a fall of 38 females per 1,000 males. But the recoupment was equally speedy and, in 1931, most of the losses of previous decades were off set. However, the urban sex-ratio was rather slow in recovery, and only 933 females per 1,000 males were recorded in that year. On an average, a gain of 20 females per 1,000 males was recorded in the sex-ratio of the District, both in the rural and urban areas.

A significant increase in the feminity was again recorded in the District in 1941 when in comparison to the State sex-ratio which had slightly declined the sex-ratio in Damoh had gone up from 974 to 981. The trend is suggestive of some amount of emigration "perhaps to the neighbouring Jabalpur District, where an entirely new factory township of Khamaria had sprung up in the closing years of the decade."[2]

1. Damoh District Census Handbook, 1961, p. LiiL
2. ibid.

After practically maintaining the same sex-ratio in 1951, as in the previous decade, the District lost substantially in 1951-61, as also did the State. From 980 in 1951, the sex-ratio declined to 965. Rural and urban sex-ratios also declined to 974 and 906, respectively, from 984 and 950 in the previous decade. Both the tahsils shared the losses in almost equal proportions. However, as compared to rural, the urban sex-ratio in both the tahsils declined steeply from 974 to 903 in Hatta, and from 945 to 907 in Damoh. The reason seems to lie in faster urban growth in both the tahsils, which is attributed to the possibility of some rural to urban migration, atleast in case of Damoh town, which is less likely to attract persons from the other tahsil or from outside Damoh District.[1] The reduction in feminine proportion in urban areas in 1961 seems to suggest that the migration was possibly of men-folk largely.

Growth of Population

The census history in the District dates back to 1866, when a population of 2,62,641 was recorded. Though in 1869 the District received 123 villages, including the Singrampur pargana from Jabalpur, the population count in 1872 returned only 2,69,642 . In the context of the original area of the District, this was equivalent to a decrease of five per cent owing to 1868-69 famine and considerable emigration to Sagar, where the failure of crop was not severe. For the ensuing two census decades, the population rose by 16 per cent in 1881, and about 4 per cent in 1891, recording a population of 3,25,613. The last decade of the previous century was characterised by successive scarcities and famine, in which Hatta Tahsil was affected more severely than Damoh. Periodic emigration for harvesting into Jabalpur District from Damoh Tahsil was late in the year which account for its faring better in 1901 Census. At the turn of the century, the District thus recorded 2,85,326* persons, i.e., nearly 12.4 per cent less than in 1891.

The variation in District population since then, till the 1961 Census count is shown in the following Table.

Table No. III-4

Variation in Population, 1901-1961

Year	Persons	Decade variation	Percentage decade variation
1901	2,86 248	—	—
1911	3,34,123	+ 47,873	+ 16.73
1921	2,88,054	+ 46,069	+ 13.79
1931	3,06,556	+ 18,502	+ 6.42
1941	3,41,211	+ 36,655	+ 11.96
1951	3,57,463	+ 14,252	+ 4.15
1961	4,38,943	+ 80,880	+ 22.63

Source: Damoh District Census Handbook, 1961.

1. ibid. p. L.

*Not adjusted to 1961 Jurisdiction of the District.

A Decade of Normal Growth

The opening decade of the present century has been characterized as generally healthy and good, which brought about 16.73 per cent increase in the District population. Compared to the State as a whole (15.3 per cent), the District population increased slightly more owing largely to the expansion of Damoh town. Hatta Tahsil showed a more rapid recuperation from the set-back of the earlier decade than Damoh Tahsil, which increased by 20 per cent and 15 per cent, respectively. Comparatively, high birth-rate which ranged between 33.49 per mille of population in 1901 and 65.41 per mille in 1908, and low death-rate which ranged between 25.95 per mille in 1901 and 52.49 per mille in 1906, were responsible for this increase. The District is not substantially exposed to migration and, whatever it was, the adjoining districts of Sagar and Jabalpur and, to some extent, Bundelkhand States accounted for the same. Of about 35 thousand immigrants, 18 thousand came from contiguous districts and the rest (17 thousand) from other places. Of the emigrants which totalled to 25 thousand, as many as 17 thousand went to contiguous districts and the rest to other places.

The Dark Decade of 1911-21

The decade 1911-21, which has been ostracized as the darkest period in the demographic history of the Province, was more pronounced in its fatal effects in Damoh District, which recorded 13.8 per cent decrease in its population in 1921, over the previous decade. The decrease was universal in rural and urban areas, though in rural areas it was more pronounced. Although the agricultural and economic condition of the decade was generally described as one of considerable complexity owing to failure of rains in 1918-19, yet Damoh seems to have escaped distress because of favourable winter rains. However, the District reacted disastrously to the culminating influenza epidemic of 1918-19, which struck it with lightning suddenness and violence, spreading rapidly, and leaving behind it a melancholy wake of decimated villages and destitute orphans. Explaining the large decrease of population in Damoh District, the report observes: "The history of vital statistics is somewhat similar (i.e., to that of Sagar District), but there was an actual excess of deaths in 1916, and in the influenza year there was a recorded death rate of 159 per mille as against 133 in Saugor, while the low birth-rate persisted for the two subsequent years instead of one."[1]

The epidemic slightly influenced the migration pattern of the District also, as far as the contiguous areas are concerned. The extent of overall migration had slightly increased. But as far as the contiguous tracts were concerned, proportionately reduced immigration and enlarged emigration characterized the migration-pattern in comparison with the previous decade. Of the 36,941 immigrants, about 15,000 or about 41 per cent were from contiguous tracts. Similarly, of the 29,376 emigrants during 1911-21 decade, as many as 23,000 or about 79 per cent went to contiguous tracts against about 68 per cent in the

1. Quoted in Census of India, 1921, C. P. & Berar, Pt. I, p. 5.

previous decade. A characteristic feature of Nerbudda Valley Division has been the temporary movement of labour for wheat harvest, known as *Chaithara*. During the decade Damoh District was an exception where a net loss of only 595 persons was recorded on account of this.

Period of slow Growth

The three successive decades after 1921 were characterised by low rate of increase in population in the District, varying between 6.42 per cent in 1921-31, 11.96 per cent in 1931-41 and 4.15 per cent in 1941-51.

Apart from various other natural factors adversely affecting the growth of population, the depletion of women in the main fertility group of 25-35 years by influenza epidemic of 1918-19 also contributed towards a low rate of increase during these decades. On the one hand the effect of the epidemic was more pronounced on persons at the two extremes of life, while on the other it mauled the weaker sex more than the stronger sex. As Damoh District had lost heavily in the epidemic, the consequential effect of the depletion was more pronounced in respect of Damoh than of the State as a whole. The continued scarcity conditions of 1921-31 decade brought down the mean decennial birth-rate (registered) to 41.4 which after increasing to 45.3 in the following decade, again came down to a lower level of 35.6 in the 1941-51 decade. Similar trend is also reflected in the mean decennial death-rate which increased to 37.4 in 1931-41 from 34.2 in the previous decade, but declined to a still lower level of 30.00 in 1941-51. the other contributing factor has been the emigration to the neighbouring areas, particularly Jabalpur district, where entirely a new township of Khamaria had emerged during the 1941-51 decade.

Eventful Decade of 1951-61

This brings us to the threshold of an eventful decade characterised by the adoption of Planning as a creed for economic development, which had far-reaching effects on the demographic map. An all-time high increase of 22.63 per cent in the District population over 1951 took the population to 4,38,343 in 1961. Damoh Tahsil recorded a faster increase than Hatta with 24.1 per cent increase in the former and 19.7 per cent in the latter. The high increase was a phenomenon common to the State as a whole, as also the factors leading to it. The causes that led to a low birth-rate appear to be imperative during this decade, namely, depletion of reproductive age-groups. Apart from this, general improvement in public health owing to concerted drive to root out epidemics, and extension of medical facilities in the interiors had led to an effective arrest of mortality.

Migration, which has not been substantial in Damoh, still largely maintained its pattern. The contiguous tracts of Sagar and Jabalpur continued to be important centres of emigration from Damoh. The following Table shows the actual immigrant population in 1961.

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* These mean decennial rates are for combined Damoh and Sagar districts.

Table No. III-5
Immigrant Population, 1961

Born in	Immigrants				
	Total	Male	Famale	Rural	Urban
Born in other districts of the State	38,379	11,422	26,957	29,061	9,318
States in India beyond Madhya Pradesh	3,563	2,013	1,550	1,272	2,291
Born in countries in Asia beyond India	1,498	797	701	49	1,449
Born in countries in Africa	1	1	—	—	1
Unclassifiable	4	4	—	—	4

Source: Damoh District Census Handbook, 1961.

Of the immigrants born in other districts of the State, as large a number as 15,091 came from Sagar, 7,883 from Jabalpur 5,649 from Chhatarpur, 4,957 from Panna, 679 from Narsimhapur and the rest (4,120) from non-contiguous tracts. Uttar Pradesh (1982) amongst the States in India, and Pakistan (1,449) from beyond India, were other important sources of immigration to Damoh. It appears that immigration from contiguous tracts showed preference to rural, while that from non-contiguous preferred urban parts of the District, which, to some extent, reflects the nature of migration. It appears that in the former case it is more of a temporary character than in the case of the latter.

Density of Population

In 1901 the density of population was 101 persons per square mile as against 115 in 1891. Damoh and Patharia Station-House areas were recorded to be the most densely populated with 205 and 204 persons per sq. mile in the open country, and next to these came Sitanagar and Tejgarh. The hilly country of the south was the most sparsely populated with less than 100 persons per sq. mile, excluding the area of Government forest. The District density advanced to 118 in 1911 and then receded to the 1901 level (102) in 1921. Since 1872 when the density was 96 a net gain of 6.5 per cent was recorded in the density of the District in 1921. Compared to Sagar district Damoh was recorded to be somewhat more broken and less fertile, and owing to the absence of large towns, the density was generally low. The fatal influenza in 1918-19 decreased the District-density by 13.8 per cent in 1921, as against 2.4 per cent in respect of Sagar and 0.03 per cent in respect of Jabalpur. In 1931 the density of Damoh increased to 109 persons per sq. mile.

The Table below gives the density of population in tahsil break up in 1951 and 1961, calculated on the basis of revised area figures.[1]

1. These figures were released by the Director of Land Records in 1962-63.

Table No. III-6

Density in Tahsil break up, 1951 *and* 1961

Tahsil	Area in sq. km. (1962-63)	Density (per sq. km.)	
		1961	1951
Damoh	4,661.8	62	50
Hatta	2,657.2	55	46
Damoh District	7,319.0	60	49

Source: Damoh District Census Handbook, 1961.

Since 1931 the density of the District has advanced considerably, recording 49 persons per sq. km. in 1951 and 60 in 1961. In 1961, the lop-sided distribution of area and population among the tahsils shows that Hatta with 36.3 per cent of area (1962-63) accounted for 33.6 per cent of the District population, while Damoh Tahsil with 63.7 per cent of the District area had 66.4 per cent of its population. Damoh, thus, seems to be more densely populated than Hatta Tahsil. With 60 persons per sq. km. in the District, it is one of the sparsely populated districts of the State, ranking 32nd in descending order in population density.

Among the tahsils, Damoh with a density of 62 persons against 55 in Hatta Tahsil is slightly more densely populated. It is explained, among other things, by its being better served with communication links, and concentration of population, especially in Damoh town. Density in rural areas varies principally with the relative culturability of the soil. Thus in the villages, both of Damoh and Hatta tahsils, lying along the valley of the Sonar, which contains fine black-soil, the density of population is considerably high. Both the tahsils include sparsely inhabited tracts of hill, jungle or poor soil, particularly in the hilly tracts in the northern part of Hatta Tahsil and southern part of Damoh Tahsil. The latter, however, contains pockets of rich black soil supporting a cluster of thickly inhabited villages.

The relative urban density shows that Damoh Tahsil has got an edge over Hatta Tahsil, the former having 2,996 persons and the latter 1,538 persons per sq. km. in 1961. Of the two towns in the District, one in each tahsil, Damoh town shows more pressure on space in Ward No. 1 and VI, in which 'Non-Working' population abounds.

Rural-Urban Population

Damoh in 1961 had 1,397 villages (253 uninhabited) and two towns. The rural area covering 7,253.2 sq. km. (2,800.4 sq. miles) had a population of 3,82,570 in 1961. The urban area extended over 21.4 sq. km. (8.3 sq. miles), and had 55.773 persons, giving a density of 6,744 persons per sq. mile as compared to 137 in rural area.

The following Table shows the rural-ruban classification of the District population in tahsil break up in 1961.

Table No. III-7

Tahsil-wise Population of Towns and Villages, **1961**

Tahsil	No. of Villages		No. of Towns	Population		
	Inhabited	Uninhabited		Total	Rural	Urban
Damoh	703	139	1	2,91,028	2,44,372	46,656
Hatta	441	114	1	1,47,315	1,38,198	9,117
Damoh District	1,144	253	2	4,38,343	3,82,570	55,773

Source: Damoh District Census Handbook, 1961.

Classified by population, 87.3 per cent of the District population resided in 1,144 populated villages, of which 441 or 38.5 per cent were in Hatta Tahsil and 703 or 61.5 per cent in Damoh Tahsil. On an average, a village in the District contained 334 persons, rising to 348 in Damoh Tahsil and receding to 313 in Hatta Tahsil according to 1961 Census. The average population per village happened to be much less than that of the State, or even of Jabalpur Division, where on an average there were 394 and 363 persons per village, respectively, in 1961.

The majority of the inhabited villages, i.e., 46.9 per cent were of very small size (below 200 persons), which accounted for 13.9 per cent of the rural population. Small villages with a population between 200 and 499, which constituted 34.4 per cent of all inhabited villages, accounted for the largest share in population, i.e. about 33.3 per cent. Similarly, in the medium-sized villages, which form about 13.8 per cent of inhabited villages, there lived about 28.2 per cent of the rural population. The big (1,000 to 1,999 persons) and very big villages (2,000 and more persons) are least frequent in the District. They account for nearly 4.9 per cent of the total inhabited villages. These together accounted for the rest or about 24.6 per cent of the rural population.

This brings us to include that Damoh is distinctly a district of 'very small' and 'small' villages. Hatta Tahsil had 51.5 per cent of its inhabited villages in the first, and 30.8 per cent in the second category, while Damoh Tahsil had 44.1 per cent in the former, and 36.7 per cent in the latter class. In respect of populousness, Hatta with 31.4 per cent and Damoh with 34.3 per cent of their respective rural population lived in "small" villages (200 to 499 persons). The similarity in rural residence-pattern between the two tahsils of the District arises out of the topographical similarity between them, as both include a part of the fertile Sonar Valley, flanked by sandstone hills and plateaus.

The District, in 1961, had an urban component of 12.7 per cent in its population, which lived in its two towns, one in each tahsil. The District is slightly less urbanized than the State as a whole, which had an urban component of 14.3 per cent in its population. Damoh Tahsil with 16 per cent urban component as against 6 per cent in Hatta Tahsil, stands out significantly, owing to Damoh town being a headquarters-town with continued existence as a municipal town since 1901. Hatta Tahsil was entirely rural until 1951 Census, when Hatta was raised to the status of a town.

The growth of rural and urban population in the District during the last 60 years since 1901 is given below.

Table No. III-8

Percentage Variation in Rural and Urban Population, 1901-1961

Year	Rural		Urban	
	Population	Percentage decade variation	Population	Percentage decade variation
1901	2,72,893	—	13,355	—
1911	3,17,081	+16.19	17,042	+27.61
1921	2,72,758	—13.97	15,296	—10.25
1931	2,85,828	+ 4.78	20,728	+35.51
1941	3,16,416	+10.70	26,795	+29.27
1951	3,13,832	— 0.81	43,631	+62.09
1961	3,82,570	+21.90	55,773	+27. 8

Source: Damoh District Census Handbook, 1961.

During 1901 to 1961, the rural population of the District increased by about 40.2 per cent, in contrast with 317.6 per cent increase in urban population.

Growth of Rural and Urban Population

Owing to the absence of industrial and commercial expansion in the District, there had been no spectacular increase in urban population during all these 60 years. Until 1931 there had been a slow and tardy growth, both in rural and urban population, whereafter, urban growth had been more consistent than rural. In 1951, a shortfall of 0.81 per cent in actual rural population was recorded, which was largely attributed to Hatta entering the urban category. This also explains to some extent a sudden spurt in the urban population during the decade, which grew by 62.09 per cent. In 1951-61, the growth in both the areas was considerable, the rural population increasing by 21.9 per cent and urban population by 27.82 per cent. In this respect, Damoh Tahsil increased faster than Hatta Tahsil during the inter-censal decade, whereas contrary was the case of urban increase in the respective tahsils. While Urban population in Hatta Tahsil increased by 36.8 per cent, Damoh Tahsil lagged behind with 26.2 per cent during the

decade. The share of intra-district migration, consisting of harvesting labourers from Hatta Tahsil at the time of the Census count cannot possibly be ruled out in the case of Damoh Tahsil. But population increase in Hatta town which is not likely to attract persons from other tahsils or from outside the District, might reasonably be attributed to rural urban migration.

Growth of Townships

In 1961 there were only two towns, namely, Damoh and Hatta in the District. Until 1941 Census count Damoh was the only municipal town having continued existence since 1901. Damoh with 5.99 sq. miles in extent recorded a density of 7,789 persons per sq. mile, while Hatta, extending to 2.3 sq. miles, recorded a density of 3,999 persons in 1961.

The population of these towns at different censuses between 1901 and 1961, beginning with the year in which they were first enumerated as towns is shown in the following Table.

Table No. III-9

Growth of Town population, 1901-1961

Town	Population						
	1901	1911	1921	1931	1941	1951	1961
Damoh	13,355	17,042	15,296	20,728	26,795	36,964	46,656
Hatta	—	—	—	—	—	6,667	9,117

Source: Damoh District Census Handbook, 1961.

By 1961 the population of Damoh town increased by about 249 per cent and that of Hatta, which emerged as a town in 1951, by 36.7 per cent. With 24 Wards and a little of non-municipal urban area, Damoh had about 8,899 occupied houses sheltering 9,286 households with a population of 46,656 in 1961. The non-workers constituting about 66 per cent of the town population, leave only 15,717 or 34 per cent as "workers". Nearly one-third of these were found to be engaged in household industry, mainly *bidi*. Hatta town with its nine Wards, into which it is divided, contained 1,648 occupied houses sheltering 1,912 households with a population of 9,117 persons. "Non-workers", who abound (5,915), leave 3,202 persons who were classified as 'workers' in 1961 Census count. The pattern of occupation in the town appears to be similar to that of Damoh town, i.e., "household industry" and "other services" engaging about twothirds of the working-force.

Displaced Persons

A small section of the stream of displaced persons that came to Sagar district after the partition of the country, found their way into Damoh and Hatta

Tahsils, which constituted a sub-division of Sagar district in 1951. They numbered 1872 (males 1,019 and females 853) according to 1951 Census. Among the tahsils, Damoh Tahsil accounted for 1,831 persons and Hatta 41. Majority of these persons settled in the towns, particularly Damoh, which alone returned 1,705 displaced persons in 1951. Almost all of them earn their livelihood through "non-agricultural occupations", "commerce" absorbing most of them.

Census 1971 (*Provisional*)

The preceding decade marks the centenary of decennial census operations in Madhya Pradesh. Damoh with 262, 641 persons in the census count of 1866, recorded 5,73,201 persons (males 295, 316 and females 277, 885) in 1971. In other words, ignoring the boundary changes of the District, roughly an increase of about 108 per cent in its population has since been recorded. The last decade shows an unprecedented increase in population to the extent of 30.77 per cent. Damoh stood ninth in descending order of district growth-rates during 1961-71, the list being headed by Sehore district (43.78 per cent) with Bilaspur in the rear (20.74). While the density of population increased from 62 in 1961 to 79 in 1971, the sex-ratio declined from 965 to 941 during the same period.

An urban component of 78,989 was recorded against 494,212 persons in rural areas in Census 1971. Though the proportion of urban population to total population improved only slightly from 12.72 per cent in 1961 to 13.78 per cent in 1971, there was a sizable urban growth (41.63 per cent) during the decade. However, in comparison with other districts of the State, Damoh ranks lower in this case. The highest urban growth was recorded in Bastar (110.25 per cent and the lowest in Mandsaur (21.96 per cent).

Damoh and Hatta with the respective population of 59,993 and 12,103 persons in 1971 were the principal towns of the District. A new township of Patharia Kalan was also added during 1971 with a population of 6,893 persons.

Language

The earlier records show that Bundelkhandi or Bundeli dialect of Western Hindi predominated in the area. In 1905, it was noted that about 99 per cent of the people in Damoh District spoke Bundeli dialect. But curiously enough, the 1961 Census count recorded only five persons speaking this dialect. As large as 98.04 per cent of the District population returned under Hindi, the rest (two per cent) enumerating 26 other languages or dialects. But even now, Hindi of rural areas essentially continues to be the Bundeli form of western Hindi. Urdu, which is the next most widely spoken language claims 9.0 per cent of the population as its speakers. This is followed by Sindhi, which is spoken by 0.3 per cent of the population in 1961. Gujarati, Marathi, Marwari and Punjabi, together account for about 0.6 per cent.

The following Table shows the speakers of a few numerically important languages according to 1961 Census[1].

Table No. III-10

Languages or Dialects, 1961

Language/ Dialect	Total			Rural	Urban
	Persons	Male	Famale		
Hindi	4,29,780	218,570	211,210	380,845	48,935
Urdu	4,084	2,088	1,996	812	3,272
Sindhi	1,347	700	647	19	1,328
Punjabi	875	458	417	59	816
Gujarati	780	380	400	156	624
Marathi	580	292	288	134	446
Marwari	461	270	191	381	80

Source: Damoh District Census Handbook, 1961.

The language distribution in the rural and urban tracts in the District indicates that immigrants, speaking Sindhi and Punjabi, apart from those speaking Gujarati, Marathi and Urdu show a tendency of concentration in urban tracts of the District.

Bundeli

As stated earlier, Bundeli continues to be the predominant form of speech in the District. It may be pertinent here to describe its variations. "Bundeli differs from Urdu in some points of inflection. In Bundeli, the long *a* forming the termination of substantives and adjectives is changed to *o* as *ghoro* for *ghora; Jatashankar ko kilo purano hai* for *Jatashankar ka kila purana hai*. The change is also made in the participial form of verbs as *khao* for *khaya*. Another tendency is to leave out the aspirate if it is not the initial letter of a word; thus *pahila* first, would be *paila*, *gahira* deep, *gaira, lahar* wave, *lair*, and so on. The *ko* of the oblique case is also changed to *e*., as *tum bazare gaye hate*, for *tum bazar ko gaye the*. If the foot of the verb ends in long *a*, it is changed into *ai* to form the verbal noun, as *khaiba khana*. In the future, the termination *ga* is not used in Bundeli, and the Gujarati termination *shai* altered into *hai* is substituted, as *u karhai* for *wah karega*. The past tense of the substantive verb *tha the* is changed to *hato, hate*, and the long *a* in the termination of the participle is shortened. as for instance *wah jata tha* would become *u jat hato*. In Bundeli as in Urdu the particle *ne* is added to nominative to transitive verbs in the past tenses, and in this respect it differs from western Hindi [1]"

Scripts

Bundeli, the predominant dialect spoken in the District, is written in

1. *Damoh District Gazetteer*, p. 34.

Devnagri script alongwith with its *kaithi* character. However, for simple Hindustani, sections of Hindus employ both Devnagri and Persian scripts, for they are conversant with both the dialects. Persian character is generally employed by the Muslims for writing Urdu, which is the next most numerous religious group in Damoh.

Bilingualism

Proximity of 27 diverse speeches has also created a certain amount of bilingualism among the District population. The following Table shows the extent of the same among the important mother tongues according to 1961 Census. The principal subsidiary languages are also shown in the Table.

Table No III-11

Bilingualism, 1961

Mother-Tongue	Mother-tongue and total No. of persons returned as speaking a language subsidiary to mother-tongue			Principal Subsidiary language	
	Persons	Male	Female	Hindi	English
Hindi	4,777	3,997	780	—	3,949
Urdu	1,186	843	343	1,088	80
Sindhi	240	177	63	220	16
Punjabi	499	300	199	426	51
Gujarati	569	289	280	462	328
Marathi	403	222	181	321	76
Marwari	268	158	110	266	1

Source: Census of India, 1961, Madhya Pradesh, Pt. II-C.

It appears that the exigencies of the situation compelled the immigrant population of Sindhis and Punjabis, who came in the wake of partition of the country, to learn the local speech of the area. They had about 17 and 58 per cent bilingual population, respectively, in 1961. Besides, Gujarati which claims 73 per cent of its speakers as bilingual, Marathi with 69 per cent, Marwari 58 per cent and Urdu 26 per cent were other notable ones. The least bilingual were, however, Hindi speakers who had only one per cent such people in the District in 1961.

It may further be of interest that Hindi and English were the most common subsidiary languages spoken by the bilingual population. More than 82 per cent of the bilingual population among the Hindi speakers were speaking English as a subsidiary language. Marathi was the next important language among them.

Religion and Caste

The religious composition of the District population in 1961 showed a predominance of Hindus who constituted about 94.4 per cent. Muslims forming about 3.2 per cent and Jains 2.1 per cent were next numerically important religious groups. The remaining 0.3 per cent of the population consists mainly of Christians, Sikhs, Buddhists and Zoroastrians. The urban areas, however, presented a somewhat different picture. Hindus, who retained their numerical predominance, receded to 81.8 per cent in urban areas, while the Muslims and Jains improved to 11.8 and 4.5 per cent, respectively. The remaining 1.9 per cent of urban population consisted of Christians, Sikhs, Buddhists and Zoroastrians.

The following Table presents the religious composition of the District population in rural and urban areas according to 1961 Census.

Table No. III-12

Religion, 1961

Tahsils	Total Rural Urban	Hindus	Muslims	Jains	Christians	Sikhs	Buddhists	Zoroastrians
Damoh	Rural	2,34,760	4,527	4,833	217	35	—	—
Hatta	Rural	1,33,496	2,809	1,879	7	5	3	—
Damoh District	Urban	45,637	6,590	2,498	575	456	5	12
Damoh District total		4,13,893	13,926	9,209	799	496	8	12

Source: Damoh District Census Handbook, 1961.

The Hindus include a wide variety of people, the castes and tribes who largely profess Hindu faith also coming into their fold. According to the Scheduled Castes and Scheduled Tribes List (Modification) Order, 1956, made by the President of India the number of Scheduled Castes in the District was 11. This order does not schedule any tribe in the District, though Gond, Saonr (Savar) and Bharia-Bhumia tribes are living in the District. All the Scheduled Castes in the District profess Hindu religion.

During the course of the census history starting from 1891, when the proportion of Hindus was 9,024 per 10,000 of population in the District, the Hindus suffered a shortfall in 1901 and 1931. Their proportion declined to 8,491 and 8,696 per 10,000 of population, respectively, during these years. However, Muslims show a steady increase in their proportion, which went up from 314 in 1891 to 344 in 1931. In 1961, the respective proportion of Hindus and Muslims stood at 9,442 and 317 per 10,000 of the District population.

Except for Christians, Sikhs and Zoroastrians, all other religious groups show predominance in rural areas. Buddhism, which has showed signs of resurgence elsewhere, was professed by only eight persons in the District.

Hindus

In the absence of the latest Hindu caste composition of the District, the relative numerical strength of each caste enumerated in 1931 Census may be of interest. Accordingly, the numerically impotant Hindu castes in Damoh District were Ahirs (13,629) Brahman (21,382) Chamars (41,591), Dhimars (10,364) Kurmi (20,887), Lodhis (39,451), Basors (7,172), Chadars (6,787), Rajputs (7,732), Telis (6,310), etc. Of the 11 Scheduled Castes who profess Hinduism, Chamars with their synonymous group claimed more than 76 per cent of the total Scheduled Caste population in 1961. Among the others, Bahnas (238), Basors (10,136), Dahaits (854), Doms (5), Khatiks (530), Koris (3,100), Mahars (1,592), Mangs (21), Mehtars (2,389), Sansis (1) and unclassifiable castes (7) were also recorded in 1961 Census.

The Table below indicates the regional distribution of Scheduled Caste population according to Census 1961.

Table No. III-13

Tahsil-wise Scheduled Caste Population, 1961

Tahsil (Rural)	Scheduled Castes			Percentage to Total S. C. Population
	Total	Males	Females	
Damoh	42,274	21,547	20,727	52.6
Hatta	28,178	13,961	14,217	35.1
Total				
Rural	70,452	35,508	34,944	87.7
Urban	9,882	5,104	4,778	12.3
District Total	80,334	40,612	39,722	100.00

Source: Damoh District Census Handbook, 1961.

With 52.6 per cent of Scheduled Caste population, Damoh Tahsil (rural) showed more concentration of all these castes except for Basor, Dahait, and Kori. The latter were concentrated in Hatta Tahsil (rural). However, compared to total respective population of tahsils, they were slightly more numerous (20.3 per cent) in Hatta Tahsil than in Damoh Tahsil, where they constitute about 17.1 per cent only. The Scheduled Castes together constituted about 18.3 per cent of the District population, about 18.4 per cent of the rural and 17.7 per cent of urban population in 1961. There is thus no evidence of any concentration of these castes in the rural areas, a feature generally distinguishing the Scheduled Tribes from the rest of the population.

Brahmans

Brahmans, who form an important upper caste, came from northern India. They are sub-divided into Jijhotias, Kanaujias, Sarwarias, etc. The Sanadhyas or Sanaurhias are another branch of northern Brahmans, whose local sub-division is called Belwars. Having been engaged in carrying goods on bullocks in the past, theirs became a separate sub-caste, looked down upon by the other Sanadhyas.[1] The Maratha Brahmans, addressed as *Pandits*, came into the District during 18th century. The immigrant Khedawal Brahmans from Gujarat form an important section in the District. A legend connected with their migration to Damoh says that, a Khedawal, while on his way from Gujarat to Banaras, discovered diamonds lying in a field. He informed the Raja of Panna who gave him an estate as a reward for the discovery, and from that time other Khedawals began to immigrate and settle here.[2] A curious practice of hiring persons to beat their breasts and weep in mourning was prevalent among them. This was, however, severely condemned by the educated.[3] The Khedawals have the title of Mehta, but use other titles also as Pandit, Thakur, Dube, Tiwari and Dhagat.

Brahmans

Rajputs

The Rajputs who numbered 7,732 in 1931 have a large number of septs or clans among them. The chief being Bais, Chauhan, Gaur, Parihar and Paik. The Parihars were once dominant in the District.

Vaishyas

The Banias, who had fair strength in the District in 1931 (11,028 including Jain Banias), professed Hindu or Jain faith. The Jain sub-divisions among them were Parwars, Charnagars and Golapurabs. The Agarwals, Asathis, Umres and others professed Hindu religion. Traditionally, trading and money-lending have been their hereditary professions, though now they have taken to other occupations also. Some of the Parwar Banias were noted for their excellence as landlords.[4]

Scheduled Castes

Chamars

Forming about 12 per cent of the District population during the first decade of the century, the Chamars still are the most numerous Scheduled Caste in the District, constituting about 76.5 per cent of the total Scheduled Caste population in 1961.

Traditionally workers in leather, the majority of Chamars (63.5 per cent) depend on agriculture either as cultivators or as agricultural labourers, both being equally frequent. Household industry, which in their case is the traditional shoe-making industry, gives principal work to about one-fifth (21.1 per

1. ibid. p. 46.
2. ibid.
3. ibid. p. 47.
4. ibid. p. 59.

cent) of the workers. Other categories of occupation, however, do not have much appeal for the Chamar workers. They together claim only about 3.7 per cent of the working force. Educationally, they are still backward with only 5.3 per cent literates among them. The males separately show a more respectable literate percentage (9.8 per cent), but it recedes to one per cent among the females. The Chamars are generally of strong build, and make good farm servants and coolies for earth-work. It is a proverb that 'a Chamar has half a rib more than other men'.[1] Nona, a sub-caste of Chamars in Damoh, take their name from Nona or Lona Chamarin known as a witch.[2] A legend says that she obtained the power to cure diseases, especially snakebite. "The Chamars say that she was the mother or grandmother of the Prophet Rais Das or Rai Das".[3]

Basor

Next numerous among Scheduled Castes in the District are Basors, who accounted for 12.6 per cent of the total Scheduled Caste population in 1961. They are evenly distributed among the two tahsils of the District. The economy of Basors differs from the general economy in having considerably less dependence on agriculture. The first two agricultural categories account for only 40.4 per cent of the Caste's workers, agricultural labourers being much more frequent than cultivators. The latter fact indicates the prevailing land-hunger among them. Household industry which absorbs about 38.5 per cent of the workers, plays an important role in their economy. They traditionally pursue the industry of making artifacts out of split-bamboo. "Other services" engage about 15.9 per cent of the Basor workers.

Educationally they are still behind the rest of the series with only 3.8 per cent of their population as literate or educated, the proportion being as small as 0.4 per cent in case of females.

Basors trace their origin from Raja Benu or Venu who ruled at Singorgarh in Damoh. Venu is a Sanskrit word, meaning bamboo. A mythological "King called Vena is mentioned in the *Puranas*, from whom, for his sins, was born the first Nishada, the lowest of human beings, and Manu states that the bamboo-worker is the issue of a Nishada".[4] Thus the local story may be a corruption of the Brahmanical tradition.

The Basors of northern India are divided into a number of sub-castes, the principal of which are Purnia or Juthia, Barmaiya or Malaiya, Deshwari or Bundelkhandi, Guda or Gurha, Dumar or Dom Basor, Dubelia and Dharkar. They have a number of exogamous septs or groups, such as Mahobia, Sirmaiya, Orahia, Tikarahia, Sanpero, Mangrelo, Morya, etc.

1. ibid. p. 58
2. R. V. Russell and Hiralal, *The Tribes and Castes of the Central Provinces*, Vol. II, p. 408.
3. ibid. p. 409.
4. ibid. 209.

Traditionally a caste of weavers of coarse cloth, the Koris, Scheduled under the President's Order 1956, form the third numerically important caste in the District. Constituting about 3.9 per cent of the Scheduled Caste population in 1961, a significant feature about the Koris is their concentration in urban areas to the extent of 46.3 per cent. In the rural areas, the caste shows a slight concentration in Hatta Tahsil also.

Kori

Their entire economy revolves round the household industry, where 71.2 per cent of their working force is engaged. The traditional occupation of weaving which was returned by a small section of caste-people in Census 1961, leads one to conclude that they mostly pursue the industry of *bidi* rolling.[1]

The Koris seem to be better in respect of literacy, where 23.1 per cent of the caste-people were returned as educated and literate. The higher incidence of literacy in the caste is of course to be ascribed mainly to their concentration in urban areas.

The Koris trace their origin from Kabir, the apostle of the weaving castes, to give them a distinguished pedigree. However, it seems more probable that their name has been derived from that of the Kol caste of whom they are believed to be an off-shoot.[2] The caste seems to have a close connection with Chamars in some localities. For purposes of marriage they are divided into a number of *bainks* or septs. They worship the local Hindu deities, especially Devi.

Muslims

The Muslims who profess faith in Islam are the next numerous religious group in Damoh District. They constituted about 3.2 per cent of the population in 1961, as against 3.4 per cent in 1931. The main sects among them are Shias and Sunnis, majority belonging to the latter. A number of Muslims belong to Bahnas or cotton-carders' class, who in their religious observances resembled those of Hindus.

As elsewhere, Kalima or Creed, Sula or the five daily prayers, Roza or 30 days' fast of Ramzan, Zakab the legal aims, and the Hajj, a pilgrimage to Mecca, are the five standard religious observances among the Muslims. *Koran* is their sacred book, to which greatest reverence is paid.

Jains

Constituting the third most numerous religious group, the Jains numbered 9,209 or nearly 2.1 per cent of the District population in 1961. Since 1931, when they numbered 7,478, their population in Damoh had increased by 23.1 per cent till 1961. As in Sagar, Parwar Banias have been an influential class of

1. Damoh District Census Handbook, 1961, p. LxL
2. Ibid. Vol. II, p. 545.

Jain money-lenders. The principal men amongst the Jains enjoy the title of 'Singhai', 'Sawai-Singhai' or 'Seth' won by giving large entertainments to their fellow castemen, a separate set of festivities being required for each rise in grade[1]. Apart from Digambara and Swetambara, the Charnagars are a special sect of Jains found in Damoh, and are the disciples of Taran Swami, one of the saints of fifteenth century. They Worship their sacred books or Shastras, and have no idols. Their principal temples are located at Tejgrah, Ramgarh[2] and Sukha Nisaia village near Pathariya Railway Station in Damoh Tahsil. Rath festival which brings the hereditary title. is not observed by the Charnagars. But the construction of *Chityalaya* (temple), in which their sacred books are placed brings the title of *Seth*. Their temples do not have the *kalash* or pinnacle.

Social Life

Property and Inheritance

The property in the rural areas mainly consists of land, cattle, ornaments and utensils. Since the families in this region are paternal, i.e., reckoned through the father, the control over the same rests with the head of the family. The families are also patrilocal in character, the institution of *lamsena*, in which the husband comes and lives in the wife's village, being an exception to the rule.

Generally, the inheritance of property continues to be governed by the customary Hindu Law, even though the Hindu Succession Act, 1956 has introduced radical changes in the matter of inheritance of property. The daughters do not always claim any right on the property of their deceased father, though the new Act has for the first time conferred on them the right of inheriting a share equally alongwith the sons when the father dies intestate. Usually, the property is divided equally among the sons in a traditional way though sometimes an additional share to the eldest son is agreed to. The widow-mother is not entitled to a share unless the dying father wished to give a separate share to her. Proverbial attachment of women to ornaments goes with their right of ownership for the ornaments presented by the parents at the time of marriage. A married woman has the right to take them in the event of desertion. The man cannot rightfully claim those ornaments.[3]

The Muslims are governed by the Islamic Law in the matter of inheritance, and the mother, wife and daughters are also cosharers in the inherited property. If the deceased had not paid the *mehr* (alimony), and had divorced his wife, the first claim on his property rests with the wife.

1. ibid. p. 44.
2. ibid.
3. Bendri, a Village Survey, Census 1961, p. 27.

Joint Family

By and large, the joint family system continues to persist, though signs of its decay are not lacking. Probably it is in the transition stage towards the nuclear family. It represents unilateral social-group, consisting of parents and their married sons and or unmarried sons and daughters. Small joint family, thus, is the most typical form containing members in vertical extension. If a household is treated as a family, then according to Census 1961 the sample study of family composition in the District will be of interest here. An analysis of the family composition of 1,000 sample households, covering 4,445 household population, reveals that, of these, the heads of the household constitute 1,000 , spouses of the heads of the households 745, married relations 603, never married, widowed, divorced or separated relations 2,084 and unrelated persons 13. This shows that in an average household, 60.4 per cent of its members were either married relations or unmarried, widowed, divorced or separated relations of the head of the household.

An average household in the District consisted of 4.4 members compared to 5.20 for the State as a whole. The majority, i.e., 44.2 per cent of the households in the District were recorded as having 4 to 6 members each, while households with 2 to 3 members stood next with 28.5 per cent of the total households.

Marriage and Morals

The institution of monogamy is being followed and is largely in practice. Though traditionally society permits polygamy in certain circumstances the Hindu Marriage Act 1955 forbids it. The deviation arises, apart from other factors, owing to the desire of begetting childern or male heir, or for reasons of insanity, etc. In the lower castes, the wife is given an economic value, since wife's labour is considered as cheap and efficient.

The Muslims are permitted to take as many as four wives, but in practice the incidence is small. Christians are forbidden to take a second wife. Monogamy is the rule and ploygamy the exception in Jain community.

Polyandrous customs or habits are absent among the people in the District in all castes and communities. In general, the caste as a segmentary division of society is characterized largely by endogamy, social distance on the basis of ideas of ritual purity and pollution, caste hierarchy and functional specialisation and economic and social inter-dependence. The marriage alliances are generally sought within the confines of the caste, which still remains an ideal in the District. *Sagotra* and *Sasinda* marriages are traditionally forbidden, because parallel and cross cousins are regarded as brothers and sisters.

The earlier records show that the usual age of marriage was 15 years for boys and 9 for girls in the District. But since then, the tendency has been to raise

1. V. A. Sangave, *Jain Community, A Social Survey*, p. 171.
2. *Damoh District Gazetteer*, p. 59.

Marital Age

the age of marriage. The analysis of census data on marital status, with usual reservation, may indicate the broad trend in this respect. Infant or very early marriages are seemingly not in vogue. However, in the absence of relevant data for early age-group, it is not possible to have a correct idea of the state of affairs. Girls start getting married between 10 and 14 years in rural areas. Most of them are married between 15 and 19 years, and hardly any remains unmarried beyond 20 years of age. In the case of boys, marriages below 14 years are insignificant, and they start marrying at the age of 15 to 19 years. However, most of them get married between 20 and 24 years. Universality of marriage is a rule, more so in the case of females.

Marriage Rites

The match is usually arranged by the parents or elders in the family. The initiative comes from the girls' side among the higher sections, while boys' parents initiate marriage negotiation among the tribal stock, etc. The importance of a barber in settling a match in earlier times has declined owing to educational advancement, as also of the age of marriage.

Largely, Vedic rites are employed in the consummation of marriages, though traditional customs and rituals peculiar to castes are also followed. On the day the marriage is settled, a ceremony known as *phaldan* is performed in which the bride-to-be is presented with fruits, clothes and sweets. This is also known as *oli bharna*, or filling the lap. Among the higher castes, some ornaments are also presented to the girl. By mutual consent, and with the help of the family priest, generally a Brahmin, an auspicious date is settled for marriage, and the *lagun* ceremony is conducted at the boy's house. The *lagun* or *lagunpatrika*, as it is known in the sophisticated circles, is a sort of letter of invitation to the bridegroom's party, conveying the date and time of important functions connected with the marriage.

The Gonds, who are almost Hinduised have also adopted this rite symbolically and, in contradistinction to the Hindu practice, the boy's parents send turmeric knots, *supari*, and a rupee and 25 paise in a paper, wrapped in a new sheet of cloth, to the bride's parents. The next important ceremony is the erection of *mandap* or *madwa*, marriage-shed, both at boy's and girl's place. For the *mandap*, sacred earth or *magar-matti* is brought by the married ladies which is used in making the ceremonial hearths and for fixing the *khamb*, bridal-pole, in position. This is followed by the ceremonial application of turmeric-powder and oil to the body of the bride and bridegroom. *Mehar* (Maihar) ceremony is performed next in which *Kuldeo*, family deity, is offered fried cakes. This ceremony is restricted to the persons of the same family.[1]

1. Jaitpuri, A Village Survey, Census 1961, p. 27.

On the following day the *barat* (marriage party) leaves for the bride's village, where it is cordially received by the members of the bride's family in a ceremony called *agwani* at the outskirts of the village. *Dwarchar*, when the marriage party reaches the bride's doors, takes place soon after, in which the bridegroom is required to throw a fan on the *mandap*. The practice is also known in some caste as *madwamarana*. Among the Gonds, etc., the bridegroom's father pays the bride-price to the bride's father. *Chadao* takes place on the next day when the bride is presented with clothes, ornaments, etc., by the bridegroom's father followed by a caste feast. *Bhanwar*, the most important ceremony, takes place thereafter. It is preceded by a minor ritual known as *richhwai* in which the girl is taken in a *doli*, an improvised plananquin, to the shrine of Khermai and to the house of caste brethren for whom it is customary to make small presents to her. The *bhanwar* ceremony consists of taking rounds of the *khamb*, usually seven in number. Amongst Gonds only four rounds are taken here, the rest being done at bridegroom's house. This is probably the survival of the older form of Gond marriage, in which the wedding took place at the bridegroom's house. In the remote parts, the tribal stock still cling to their traditional customs and rituals. Majority of them have, however, switched over to the Hindu customs retaining some of the older customs also. The adoption of such Hindu customs has led to the formation of new sub-castes. The emergence of Gond Thakurs as a separate group of Gonds, who do not inter-marry with the Gonds clinging to old order, appears to be an example of this process of a new sub-caste.[1]

The solemnisation of *bhanwar* marks the consummation of marriage. On the last day *bidai* or the ritual of farewell takes place and the bridegroom's party returns to their village with the bride.

A strange custom, formerly observed among the Kachhis of the District, makes an interesting reading. "In Damoh District, on the arrival of bridegroom's party, the bride is brought into the marriage-shed, and is there stripped to the waist while she holds a leaf-cup in her hand; this is probably done so that the bridegroom may see that the bride is free from any bodily defect".[2] But this practice is not followed by them now. The parents and relatives of the Kachhi girl remain away while the *bhanwar* is being performed.[3] Among the Chamars and Mehras, the usual ceremonies described above are followed and the bride-price is also paid at the time of *dwarchar* and *gauna*.

Muslim marriages are celebrated according to Islamic rites, and are negotiated by the parents. The ceremony of betrothal is known as *magni*. On an

1. ibid. p. 28.
2. R. V. Russel and Hiralal, op. cit., Vol. III, p. 286.
3. Jaitpur, A Village Survey, 1961, p. 31. Earlier, the parents of the girl and elderly relatives used to shut themselves in the house and weep. (R. V. Russell and Hiralal, op. cit., Vol. III, p. 286)

Muslim Marriage

appointed day, the bridegroom's party comes in a formal procession to the bride's house, and is lodged and entertained. The principal marriage ceremony is known as *nikah*. The *Kazi* reads out the *nikah*, and invokes the blessings of the Holy Prophet. The mutual consent for the marriage is obtained, and the amount of *mehr* is disclosed before the witnesses. This makes the marriage a contract between the parties, revokable in case of non-payment of *mehr*. The wedding is accompanied by feasts and celebrations.

Marriage among Jains

The principal marriage ceremonies among the Jains are *vagdana* or engagement; *pradana* or presentation of ornaments to bride by the bridegroom's father; *varana* or *Kanyadan*, i.e., the gift of the bride to the bridegroom by her father; *panipidaya*, the joining of hands of the bride and bridegroom together; and, finally, the *saptapadi* or circumambulation of sacred fire seven times, which culminates the marriage.[1] However, the followers of Taran Swami, known as Charnagars in the District do not perform the usual practice of circumambulation of sacred fire seven times. Instead garlands are exchanged between the bridegroom and the bride. The ritual is known among them as *malaji*. Traditionally, consent of the parties is an important consideration among them.

Dowry

The present dowry system in almost all the castes and classes, in one or the other form, has been an ancient institution.[2] While in lower castes and tribes the system of bride-price is also prevalent, the dowry, by and large is offered by most of the upper caste people. Among some of them, it has assumed notorious dimensions, and cash settlements are favoured.

In castes where child-marriage is practised, the *gauna*, going-away ceremony, takes place after the girl attains the puberty-age, and is given *mundri*,[3] toe rings, as a mark of her married status. Otherwise, in adult-marriage the importance of the same has been reduced to a mere formality. Earlier it was customary among the Rajputs of high ranks to send in a girl's marriage, a number of maid-servants alongwith her to her husband's house. These were taken from the serving castes of Nai (Barber) Dhimar (water carriers), and some compensation was paid to their families.[4]

Civil marriage is not common among any section of the District population, and is generally resorted to when a normal sacramental marriage is ruled

1. V. A. Sangave, op. cit., pp. 166-67.
2. ibid. p. 164.
3. In the higher castes, it is called *bichhiya*. The difference between them is, while the *bichhiya* wearing is compulsory for married Hindu women of higher castes, the *mundri* has no such compulsion. However, the unmarried women and widows are prohibited to wear *mundri* (Jaitpuri, A Village Survey, Census 1961, p. 28.).
4. *Damoh District Gazetteer*, p. 61.

out. During 1961 to 1965, the civil marriages registered in the Court of the Registrar of Civil Marriages under the Special Marriage Act 1954, were only five. There were 4 such cases in 1965-66 and 2 in 1969-70. During the intervening period no civil marriage was registered. However, 32 such cases were registered during the same period in the District under the Hindu Marriage Act, 1955.

Civil Marriages

Though traditionally forbidden among the higher castes in the District, divorce and widow-marriage are largely prevalent among the lower sections of the caste-hierarchy. Perhaps this is the reason why there is a noticeable absence of widows in the younger age-groups, when we analyse the marital status of persons according to Census 1961.[1] The junior levirate is permitted, whereby the younger brother of the deceased can marry the widow. In widow marriage, *bhanwar* ceremony is dispensed with, and the union is solemnized in a simple ceremony called *choori-pahrana*. Women with *choori* marriage are not permitted to participate in functions such as *magar-matti* or *mehar* (*Maihar*).[2] In most of the lower sections of people, divorce is not traditionally forbidden, though economic reasons act as a deterrant to it. The compensation to it is known as *byahut* or *dawa*, besides two feasts to the caste.[3]

Divorce and Widow Marriage

Economic Dependence of Women

Unlike the districts of Chhattisgarh in the State, the sex-ratio of working population among each category in Damoh District is very much below 1,000, though correspondingly it is higher than 1,000 among non-workers. This is obviously owing to greater proportion of dependents among women, and also because many of them are housewives who are treated as non-workers.

The following Table compares the sex-ratio among each category of workers and non-workers.

Category of workers & non-workers	Sex-ratio (females per 1,000 males)		
	Total	Rural	Urban
Total Population	965	974	906
Total Workers	586	615	342
I-As Cultivator	555	558	325
II-As Agricultural Worker	811	813	338
III-In Mining, quarrying, etc.	425	453	252
IV-At Household Industry	624	362	895
V-In Manufacturing other than Household Industry	82	164	62
VI-In Construction	211	307	95
VII-In Trade and Commerce	215	337	123
VIII-In Transport, Storage and communication	8	—	10
IX-In Other Services	774	940	300
X-Non Workers	1,900	1,315	1,430

1. District Census Handbook, 1961, p. Lvi.
2. Jaitpuri, Village Survey, p. 20.
3. Ibid. p. 30.

A comparatively higher sex-ratio among the agricultural labourers and at household industry shows a lesser degree of economic dependence on men-folk than in other category of workers. Higher sex-ratio in other services (category IX) again distinguishes the District from the State (390) as a whole and Jabalpur Division (420) where it is very low. However, female participation (586) in economic efforts in Damoh in general, and agricultural labour in particular, is conspicuously low as compared to the State as a whole (696) or Jabalpur Division (723).

Between rural and urban areas, the female participation in economic activity varies vastly. It appears that they are economically more active in the former than in the latter areas. In a way it may be said that in rural society, the economic dependence of women is positively correlated with the status of the caste. Among the higher castes, stigma still appears to be attached to their women's working in any economic activity. This is perhaps the reason for low proportion of female workers in urban areas.

Social Evils

No prostitution and trafficking in women appears to be in vogue in the District. Alcoholic drinks, however, are a common malady among the tribals, which has also permeated to a few other people living in rural areas. On festivals and ceremonial occasions it is the most common form of entertainment.

Prohibition

The Central Provinces and Berar Prohibition Act was passed and brought into force from Ist April 1938, and Sagar district was the first to witness its introduction. Damoh then formed a part of Sagar district. It sought to penalize all traffic in, and consumption of liquor with certain exceptions. All country spirit, foreign liquor and toddy shops were closed except one foreign liquor "off-shop" at Sagar.[1] It was recorded in 1939 that the largest number of persons (49) were prosecuted in Sagar. Sagar also witnessed the appointment of a paid propagandist in 1939.[3] It was marked that a shop in adjoining Panna State attracted large number of customers from Damoh, but later it was also closed down at the request of the Provincial Government. It was noted by the Deputy Commissioner, Sagar, in 1939, that the condition of ex-drinkers has improved owing to the effect of prohibition.[4] The number of cases registered under the Prohibition Act decreased from 87 in 1951 to 44 in 1954, but suddenly showed a remarkable jump to 105 in 1955 in Damoh sub-division of the then Sagar district. Since 1961, when 93 such cases were registered, the trend has been a declining one, recording 87 cases in 1965 in Damoh District which

1. Excise Administration Report, 1938, p. 9.
2. ibid. p. 10.
3. ibid. 1939, p. 7.
4. ibid. p. 9.

was constituted in 1956. After recording a peak figure of 125 registered cases in 1966, the Prohibition Act stood repealed in 1967.

Gambling

Gambling is yet another social evil reported to be prevalent in the District, and is a pastime for some people. It is more common when there is a comparative lull in agricultural activities. People usually indulge in card-games. Gambling at the time of Diwali festival is notorious in police records. However, a healthy trend is reflected from the number of cases registered under the Gambling Act. Since 1951, when 131 cases were registered, the number went on declining year after year till 1956, when only 58 cases were registered under this Act. Again, figures from 1961 to 1965 show consistently declining trend, barring the year 1964, when 70 cases were registered. From 64 cases in 1961, the number declined to 31 in 1965.

In more recent years a sudden spurt in the registration of cases under Gambling Act has been noticed in the District. From 166 cases involving 640 persons in 1968, the number went up to 355 and 880, respectively, in 1969.

Home Life

Dwelling

The total occupied residential houses in Damoh District in 1961 were 94,332, of which 83,785 were in rural and 10,547 in urban areas. Damoh Tahsil with 1,741.2 sq. miles of area had 63,023 houses, nearly twice those in Hatta Tahsil, where 31,309 occupied houses were recorded in 1961. On an average, each residential house contained 4.65 persons, receding to 4.57 persons per Census-house in rural and increasing to 5.29 persons per Census-house in the urban area It may be of interest to know that 88 per cent of the households lived in houses which belonged to them, while only 12 per cent lived in rented dwellings. In urban areas, as large a number as 45 per cent of the households had no houses of their own and had to live in rented dwellings. The sample study household in Census 1961 reveals that on an average a household in the District consisted of 4.4 members, who together lived in 1.4 rooms. As the room in the village-houses is generally small, not usually exceeding 100 to 125 sq. feet in area,[1] it gives a picture of congested living. Further to analyse the dwelling structure, it was calculated that roughly three-fourths (73.7%) of the households lived in dwellings having one room each with 4.2 persons on an average in it. About 18 per cent of the households lived in two-room houses each, with 2.5 persons per room. This leaves only 8 per cent of the households which were really better of with three or more rooms each.

Broadly the dwellings in the rural areas are somewhat in the form of clustered agglomerate, giving an impression of semi-circular outline. The tendency of

1. Damoh District Census Handbook, 1961, p. XLVII.

people belonging to the same caste-group living close together and the lower castes living at the outskirts of the village is generally found. Usually the front verandah is known as *usara*. Other essentials of a rural house are a *taparia* or cattle-shed, *bari* or kitchen garden, courtyard, hearth, stands for water-pots, etc. They are generally built on low plinth.

Buliding Material

The sample data of households collected in Census 1961 also furnish interesting information about the building material used for the construction of walls and roofs. Roughly, 48.2 per cent of the households lived in Census-house with walls made predominantly of stone. The reason seems to lie in the topography of the District, with hills in the northern and southern parts abounding in Vindhyan sandstone which furnished very good building material. Next numerous were the houses with mud-walls, accounting for about one-fourth of the households. About one-seventh (14.1 per cent) of all the households live in dwellings with walls made predominantly of unburnt bricks. The rest of the households either live in houses with burnt bricks or timber or grass leaves, reeds or bamboo.

The building pattern is somewhat different in urban areas where, instead of stone-walls, semi-*pacca* houses with walls predominantly of unburnt bricks are the most frequent. Such houses accommodated about 34.4 per cent of the urban households. These are closely followed by mud-wall houses accommodating 28 per cent, *pacca* houses with walls of burnt bricks accommodating about 15.7 per cent and stone-wall houses accommodating about 19 per cent of the urban households.

As far as roofing material is concerned the houses, both in urban and rural areas, are frequently met with roofs of tiles, slates, shingle, etc. The sample study in Census 1961 revealed that they accounted for about 99 per cent of sample households in the District. The next numerous were houses with roofs of grass, leaves, thatch, reeds, wood or bamboos. The front and rear slopes of the tiled roofs are known as *palani* and the other two sideslopes as *khupia*.

Ventilation is generally absent in the rural houses, though a small hole, known as *khirki*, is sometimes provided in the wall to serve the above purpose.

Furniture and Decoration

Poor as the people are, the list of their household possessions is very small. An average household in the rural area is still devoid of furniture or articles of luxury. *Charpai* or cot serves largely the multiple purpose of sitting, sleeping, etc. Those who can afford, and have been influenced by urban ways, have locally made low wooden stools, chairs, etc. The urban houses stand better in this respect, and sophisticated furniture like sofasets, chairs, tables, etc., have found their way into middle class family houses.

Except for walls on either side of the front door, often engraved with ornamental protuberances, which also serve as place for keeping the small

earthen *chimney* or lamp, there is general absence of any other decoration. The motifs are sometimes figures like rising sun or crude human forms, floral border designs, etc.

Utensils

Other household possessions of the people include a few metal and earthen utensils, grindstone or *chakki*, *sil* (a slate of stone), and a *lodha* or a stone-roller for pounding spices and turmeric.

The utensils for storing water are *gund* and *gaghar* of either brass or baked earth. Usually these utensils, more particularly earthen, are considered to be polluted if touched by others. The cooking utensils are *handia*, a round earthen pot for preparing rice or *pej*; *paraiya*, a cover for *handia*; *talaiya* for preparing vegetables and *dal*; *thali*, a large circular metal plate for preparing the flour into dough before making *chapatis* or for eating food in it; *ursa-belwa* for rolling *chapatis*; *rout-pouna* or *khapra* for baking *chapatis*; *danwa*, a wooden laddle; and *lota*, a metal pot used for drinking water.

Dress

Not much variation has taken place in respect of ordinary dress of rural people in the District, except that the texture of cloth used has improved over a span of 60 years, i.e., since the earlier gazetteer was written. The men wear a short *dhoti* or loin-cloth, which is also known as *pardhania* among the tribal folk, and a *kamij* (shirt), or sometimes, particularly in the case of older people, a *salooka* or vest, purchased ready made from the market. *Kurta*, a collarless shirt, is also worn by the people. In winter *mirzai*, stuffed with cotton, dyed in dark shades, is worn, more particularly by the older people. The young prefer woollen sweaters. Bush-shirts and trousers are also worn by a few who have come under the spell of urban elites. Among the urban middle-class people it is a usual wear. The traditional *pagri*, a headgear of the village folk, is rarely seen now. *Towalia*, a short piece of cloth is sometimes draped as a headgear for protection against the sun. Its place is sometimes taken by a coloured cap, *topi*. The young prefer to go bare-headed.

The females deck themselves with coloured and bordered *dhoti* with or without a *kachha*, an under-garment. Sometimes, short saris are also worn over a long loose petticoat. The upper-garment is known as *polka*, a short-sleeved blouse with pocket. *Angia*, another garment, differs from a *choli* as it is tied at the back. Mill made saris, a common wear of urban middle class women, is draped over the petticoat. Blouse with short or no sleeves is becoming a fashionable wear among the elites of the urban area. The Punjabi *shalwar* and *kamij* is a traditional wear among their womenfolk, although sari has also gained much popularity among them. The popular winter clothing among them is a cardigan.

The traditional shoes known as *jhabbadar* are no more in current wear, though old people still adhere to it sometimes. It used to be so called from their

Footwear

having long flaps in front and at the back to protect the feet from thorns. Bundela Rajputs used to wear them with very long flaps, ornamented with lace and red woollen cloth.[1] Now most of the villagers wear ordinary factory-made shoes or *munda-chappals*. Slippers made of motor-tyre are also worn by the people; the womenfolk prefer *pouja*. It is like a *juta* or *panhi*, but remains open at the heels, and is worn when they work in the fields. The custom of taking off shoes as a mark of respect to elderly people is still in vogue.

Ornaments

Love for ornaments among the womenfolk is proverbial, and they are regarded as a mark of status among the village folk. To the women in villages, ignorant of the sophisticated ways of their counterparts in the towns, ornaments appear to be the only known external aid to beauty. The most common ornaments of the arm are *tordal*, a silver wristlet; *chandori*, a silver bangle covered with rows of little spikes on the top of which balls and globules are designed; *banke*, a silver armlet or twisted wire worn on the upper arm; *churia* or glass bangles, *churha*, a solid silver or bronze wristlet; and *bagmoha*, resembling a *tordal* excepting that it contains the design of a tigerhead at both ends. Around the neck the womenfolk deck themselves with *suta*, a glass-beaded necklace; *khamoria*, a solid silver necklace; takar, a rupee-necklace; and *sakar*, a silver chain. *Pungaria* in the nose; *bari*, a circular silver earring worn at the helix region; the popular *kanphul*, an ear-stud; *mundri* in the finger and *bichhiya*, the toe-rings, are symbolic of married women.

Males generally do not wear ornaments, but sometimes those who can afford wear *bala* or earring and *murki*, a finger ring.

Food

It appears that largely bread of wheat or *birra*, a mixture of wheat and gram, is the staple diet of the people of all shades in the District. The earlier gazetteer, however, recorded that wheat was consumed by the well-to-do people, while the ordinary agriculturists ate juar and gram, and wheat for a few months after harvest. Now the well-to-do people occasionally take a little rice also during the midday meals.

Two principal meals a day, known as *jewan* or *rotikhana* in the midday and *beyari* late in the evening, are taken by people in this tract. The breakfast before going to fields is known as *kalewa*. The *kalewa* consists usually of fried gram and *mahua*. Those who can afford also take *satua* or powdered gram. Morning tea has become a routine among all classes of town people. The midday meal is taken at the fields by farmers and it consists of *roti*, *dal* and sometimes *bhat* (rice). *Karhi* is a favourite dish, which is prepared by boiling ground-gram in butter-milk. The earlier gazetteer noted the absence of *pej* in Damoh, a common dish in other districts. The *beyari* consists of *roti* and *dal*, and sometimes seasonal vegetables

1. *Damoh District Gazetteer*, p.568.

also. Commonly used pulses are *masur*, *chana*, *arhar*, *mung* and *urd*. On festival occasions the items of food multiply to some extent. *Luchai*, *chapatis* fried in ghee, *bari*, *papad*, potato-curry, *dal*, *bhat*, etc., are a few preparations specially served.

Barring certain sections, namely, Jains and Brahmans most of the male population of the District are non-vegetarians. This does not necessarily mean that meat forms the principal item of their daily diet. It is, however, a delicacy which is partaken once in a while to celebrate certain festive occasions. Goat, fowl, fish and pig form the normal items of non-vegetarian diet, but among Basors, Chamars and Kumhars, fowl and pig find favour, perhaps for economic reasons.

The most common medium of cooking is *til* oil (Seasamum oil), though *alsi*, *guli* and mustard oil are also used by some people in the District. Ghee is generally used on special occasions.

Amusement and Festivals

The easy means of recreation afforded by the folk-dances and songs, traditional among the tribal folk, have been adversely affected on account of the urbanization of tribal people in the area. It appears that their frequency has been reduced to festive occasions. This void in the natural way of life has been filled by the periodical singing of *bhajans*, *fag*, *dadaria*, etc. The Panchayats provide facility to them for community listening to radio programmes. The recitation of the *Ramayan* and *Alha*, and occasional cinema-shows provide means of amusement. In the urban areas, the scope of amusement is restricted to movies and occasional cultural programmes organized by various agencies.

Festivals

The festivals, which are largely religious in character, bring with them pleasure and happiness to the people, and are occasions of great rejoicing. They provide much needed relief from the drudgery of their daily routine and make the rural life pulsate with zeal.

The festival cycle of Hindus starts with Navratri, or Jawara which is a nine days' festival occurring twice, first in Chaitra and then in Kunwar. These two periods of nine days are called the Nao-Durga or the nine days of Goddess Durga. Owing to its synchronising with agricultural operations of sowing and harvesting, the Jawara is described as an agricultural festival. It is celebrated by all the communities. The grain sproutings in the pots are called *Jawaras* which are placed in a room where a lamp is kept burning for nine days. Fast is observed and the *Jawaras* are watered for nine days. *Devi* is worshipped and, on the eighth day, *hom* ceremony is performed during which the *gunias* or the devotees are possessed by Devi. On the evening of the ninth day, the *Jawars* are taken out in procession on the head of the ladies, singing songs in praise of Devi, to the accompaniment of drums and cymbals. The *Jawaras* are then immersed in a tank or a stream nearby. Fairs are also held during the period at Magrol and Rajpura villages in Hatta Tahsil. Akhtij or Akti is another important festival of the people in this area. It is celebrated on the third day of the second fortnight of Vaisakh.

It is celebrated by all, but particularly by the farmers, as the agricultural year starts on that day. The earlier gazetteer refers to it as Haraita, when plough and cattle are worshipped. This is followed by Asharhi-puja when Khermata is propitiated for good rains and bumper crop. In Sravana falls the Raksha Bandhan, which is also associated with the festival of Bhujalia or Bhujaria in which wheat grains are sprouted and grown in earthen pots for eight days and worshipped. These are finally immersed in a stream by the ladies. The sisters tie *rakhi* on the wrist of brothers on the occasion of *Raksha Bandhan*. The earlier gazetteer also records the celebration of a festival called Mahulia. Children, especially girls take a dried twig of a thorny tree like the *babul*; they tie flowers on to it, and carry it round the village, singing songs. It is then thrown into a river and slices of cucumber distributed among the children. This is followed by Harebhat on the sixth day of Bhadra, and Tija, three days earlier to it. On Tija day married women observe fast and worship Mahadeo and Parwati for *Suhag* and welfare of children. Janmashtami to celebrate the birth anniversary of Lord Krishna on the eighth day of the dark fortnight of Bhadra, and Phulera on the third day of the bright fortnight of Bhadra when Shankarji is propitiated for the welfare of the family, are also celebrated by the people. In Asvina falls the Karaidin and Navratri (Dussehra) festivals. The former marks the period when offerings are made to the dead ancestors and the latter the worship of Durga Mata for 9 days. It is celebrated for the victory of Good over Evil, the victory of Rama over the demon king Ravana and also of Devi over the demon Bhainsasur. The leaves of *kachnar* tree (*bauhinia variegata*) are exchanged on the day.

Diwali, the festival of lights is celebrated on the 15th day of the dark or first fortnight of Kartika, 20 days after Dussehra. The houses are whitewashed, and earthen lamps are lighted. In the urban areas, elaborate electrification of houses is also done with multi-coloured bulbs by those who can afford. Fire-works and crackers are let off by children on this occasion. Shopkeepers or traders close their account books and open new ones, which are worshipped alongwith the goddess of wealth, Laxmi. In villages, cattle are decorated on the occasion with peacock feathers and colourful designs, and are given *khichri* and some salt to eat. Gambling is usually open during the three following days, and the coming year's prospects were assigned to losses or gains of gambling on Diwali night. Now open gambling has disappeared owing to legal restrictions, but the superstition still continues.

Makar Sankranti in Magha and Shivratri in Phalguna are other festivals. The former marks the entry of the Sun into Capricorn. Religious fairs are organised on the occasion at village Mada Hardua, Jamunia, Patera, Muhas, Sakhuma and Saliya in Hatta Tahsil, and at Chakeri, Kakarda Malwara, Bansoli, Ronda, Hardua and Tejgarh in Damoh Tahsil. On Shivaratri, people observe fast and worship Shiva at home and in the temple.

Another major festival is Holi, which is celebrated by all sections of Hindus in the month of Phalguna. After the *holi* bonfire is lit, people sprinkle coloured

water and *gulal* on one another on the following day. In the bonfire, offerings of new wheat-ears, etc., are made. The people enjoy *raia* or *raee* dance performed by the Bernis, a professional class of dancers. *Fag*, the *holi* songs, are sung in great revelry. There is no ribaldry or obscenity necessarily associated with them as recorded in the earlier gazetteer. The mood continues till Rang-Panchami.

The principal festivals of Muslims, as elsewhere, are Muharram and two Ids, namely, Id-ul-Fitr and Id-uz-Zuha. Muharram, a 10-day festival to commemorate the martyrdom of Imam Hussain is held every year. Impressive processions are taken out to the accompaniment of heart-rending dirges. Fast is observed on this day. *Tazias*, replicas of the martyr's tomb, are carried in procession and buried. Replica of a horse, symbolising Imam Hussain's horse *Dul-Dul* also takes part.

Id-ul-Fitr or Ramzan Id comes with the new moon. The festival marks the end of the solemn month of Ramzan, a month of fasting and prayers for Muslims. Id-uz-Zuha or Baqr-Id, as is commonly known, commemorates the sacrifice of Abraham who offered his son Ismel on the altar on Divine instruction. But God replaced his son with a ram, and thus on this day rams and goats are sacrificed. Feasting and rejoicing follow on the day.

The principal festivals of Jains are usually to commemorate important events of the past, and are accompanied by fast for self-purification and worship. *Paryushan Parva* lasts for 10 days among the Digambaras and 8 days among the Svetambaras. Fasting with varying intensity is observed during all these days and pardon for the sins of the year is sought. Lord Mahavira's birthday is conventionally celebrated on the fifth-day of *Paryushan*, even though it falls on the thirteenth day of the bright half of Chaitra. Other festivals are 'Saint-Wheel' worship (*Siddhachakra Puja*), twice in a year in Chaitra and Asvina for 9 days; *Ashtanhika*, twice in a year; Mahavira Jayanti on thirteenth day of the bright half of Chaitra. etc.

The Christian and Sikh population of Damoh celebrate their respective festivals which are largely restricted to their own communities. Important among the Christians are Easter Day and Good Friday in March/April. and Christmas Day on 25th December. Gurupurab (Guru-Nanak) during October/November and birth anniversary of Guru Gobind Singh during December/January are important festivals of Sikh community. *Granth Sahib*, their sacred book, is read and taken out in procession in the Gurupurab, festival.

All the villagers believe in going to holy places or *teerth*. Religious fairs, which are also centres of pilgrimage, are held in the District at many places.

Fairs and Yatras

Bandakpur, a village nearly nine miles to the east of Damoh town, is famous for its temple dedicated to Jageshwar Mahadeo on the bank of the sacred tank, and is a place of pilgrimage in the month of *Magha* when a large Basant Panchami fair for

eight days is celebrated. People from far and near participate in large numbers. It is reported that about two lakh persons congregate on the occasion to worship Mahadeo. It is said that the temple was constructed by Balaji Diwan, the Maratha Governor of Damoh in 1771. Another important place of pilgrimage is known as Kundalpur, a small village in the south-east of Hatta Tahsil. It is a sacred place for Jains, and there are a number of temples situated at the northern end of a range of low hills on the left bank of river Bearma. Of about 50 temples, the principal temple is that of Mahavira, with an image 12 feet tall, standing on a four-feet high pedestal. It is also known as the temple of 'Bare Baba'. The tank nearby is known as Vardhman Tank. A big fair is also held here, once in an year, when jains from far and near assemble to worship Mahavira. Other Hindu temples are also there. A fair known as Ambika-Mai-ka-Mela is held every year in April, attended by about 2,000 people.

Other fairs of importance are Navratri fair at village Magrol held in Chaitra attended by about 10,000 persons; Nilkantheshwar fair at village Agara in Pausa-Magha, attended by 6,000 to 7,000 persons; Shivaratri fair at village Batiagarh and Patharia in Phalguna, attended by about 6,500 persons; Sankranti fair at Ronda, Tejgarh, etc., in Pausa-Magha; Nagapanchami fair at Damoh in Sravana and Jatashankar fair at Damoh in Pausa-Magha.

The important Muslim fair is *urs* at Narsingarh held in May every year. It is attended by about two to three thousand people. At the tomb of Kazi Alimuddin Khan Bahadur, who was a celebrated *peer*, an yearly *urs* is held in January at Lakhaoni when a number of devotees assemble there.

Mahavira Jayanti, celebrated in Chaitra among the Jains, Guru Nanak birthday in November among the Sikhs, and Christmas Day among the Christians are other festivals of importance in the District. A detailed list of local religious fairs is given in Appendix.

The popular folk-dances commonly known are *moni*, *rai*, *saira* and *dhimaryai*. Moni dance is usually performed on the occasion of Deepawali and Holi, in which generally males participate. *Rai* is the dance of professional dancers who, accompanied by the entire troupe consisting of drummers and singers, move from village to village and perform this dance, to the great enjoyment of village people.

Dances and Songs

The community life of the District includes periodical singing of *bhajans*, *fag*, *dadariya*, etc. The *bhajans* are sung in tune with the accompanying music of *mandar*, *dholak* and *manjira*.

Hockey is a popular game in schools where facility for it exists. Football and cricket are also fast gaining popularity. Among the indigenous games, *Kabaddi*,

kho-kho and *charra* are widely popular in rural areas. In villages, the Panchayat Offices are the centres of attraction, especially where facility of listening to the radio has been extended by the Government. The sophisticated modes of recreation are generally confined to the urban areas of the District, where cinema, clubs and libraries provide ample facilities to the people.

Public games

Among the important clubs and associations at Damoh town are, the Officers' Club, Shivaji Club, College Club, Gramin Mahila Samiti, Damoh Hockey Association, Cricket Association and Railway Institute. There also exists an Officers' Club in Hatta.

CHAPTER IV

AGRICULTURE AND IRRIGATION

Damoh District consists of the northern and southern scarps of the Vindhyan plateau to the north-east and south-west with the level country of the Sonar lying between them. The Sonar Valley is the principal river valley of the District which forms a band of open, gently undulating country running right through the District with an average breadth of 32 kilometres. The valley constitutes a fertile black soil plain forming the principal wheat growing tract of the District.

The region north of the valley is characterised by a line of flat-topped barren and sterile hills rising like a wall and covered with scrub forest generally of the poorest description.

The prevailing features of the country south of the Sonar Valley are marked by low hills and scrub jungle, opening now and again into poor, little upland valleys, and less frequently into deeper and broader beds of black soil cultivation. These upland valleys though generally of very small size contain the best land in the District, the soil in the bed of valleys being richer and more fertile even than that of the Sonar. The Bearma is the principal river that traverses the southern hilly tract. Its valley though far narrower than that of the Sonar is for much of its course fertile, thickly populated and of great importance. These two valleys of the Sonar and the Bearma represent the granary of the District.

The hills with a mantle of gravel or thin shallow soils can be divided into two classes. The first comprises those which lie on top of sandstone plateaus, which stretch across the north-west and south-east of the District. The surface is level, but the soil, in most places, is fit for nothing but the poorest millets. The second class is more extensive and includes those on the upper reaches of the Bearma and in the valleys of its many tributaries. This class is comparatively more productive than the first one.

Dependence on Agriculture

The reader with any semblance of familiarity with the District will be conversant with the preponderant position of agriculture and forestry and the way in which it moulds the way of life, culture, income and pattern of living of the people. Only statistical evidence is needed to bring home this fact and its magnitude.

The result of 1961 Census shows that about two thirds (67.4 per cent) of the 'workers' in the District are principally employed in agriculture. The proportion is higher than the District average in the less urbanised Hatta Tahsil. About

half of the 'workers' have been returned as 'cultivators' which term includes persons who cultivate on their own account whether owned (including unpaid work on family holding) or unowned holdings as against agricultural labourers who work on land for others on wages. The proportion of cultivators is higher in Damoh than in Hatta Tahsil, which shows a sizeable excess in the proportion of agricultural labourers. This suggests greater intensity of pressure on land in Hatta than in Damoh Tahsil, as also possible inter-tahsil migration of labour to Damoh Tahsil during the harvesting season.

The results of 1961 Census, as regards the above aspect, are presented in the Table below.

Table No. IV-1

Livelihood Pattern

Tahsil	Percentage of Workers in Category		
	I Cultivators	II Agricultural Labourers	III-IX
Hatta	49.5	21.0	29.5
Damoh	53.3	12.5	34.2
Total District	52.0	15.4	32.6

The occupational classification at the preceding Census of 1951 was done on a different pattern, but that also points out to the essentially agricultural character of the District. This Census returned 73.8 per cent of the total population as dependent upon agriculture.[1]

Damoh District, like its adjacent districts, is a *rabi* District. In 1970-71 with 3.9 per cent of the total wheat area of the State it occupied the eighth place amongst the wheat growing districts of Madhya Pradesh. The place of wheat in the economy of the District is uppermost. It occupied 44.5 per cent of the total cropped area of the District. Gram was responsible for 7.3 per cent of the total cropped area. However, *kharif* crops, namely, rice (16.4 per cent) *jowar* (5.6 per cent) and *masur* (4.4 per cent) are also quite important. Amongst oilseed crops *til* with 2.2 per cent and linseed with 4.1 per cent of total cropped area are prominent. Taken as a whole, 72.5 per cent of the total cropped area is devoted to the production of cereals and millets, 14.7 per cent to pulses, (i.e., 87.2 per cent to foodgrains), 0.6 per cent to other food crops and a small area, i.e., 12.2 per cent to non-food crops. Pulses, wheat and oilseeds are usually exported from Damoh District.

1. According to the provisional results of the Census of 1971, out of the total workers amounting to 1,97,131, cultivators were enumerated as 88,391 (44.8 per cent of the total workers) and agricultural labourers as 61,313 (31.3 per cent).

Land Utilization

The geographical area of Damoh District in 1891-92 was 18,15,100 acres. The same in 1964-65 was recorded as 18,01,400 acres. In 1970-71 it was 729 thousand ha. The area of the District has varied but little. In 1891-92 Government forests covered 5,44,200 acres. In 1899-1900, Government forest accounted for 5,06,300 acres. In 1953-54, all forests covered 6,92,600 acres.[1] The increase in area may be partly attributed to the inclusion of ex-*malguzari* forests in Government forests after the abolition of *malguzari* system. In 1964-65, forests comprised 6,68,000 acres. This decrease may be explained by the fresh surveys and demarcation by Forest Department and reconciliation of forest area by Revenue Department. In 1970-71 forests covered 271 thousand ha. In 1964-65, an area of 66,200 acres was classed as 'land put to non-agricultural uses.' 'Barren and unculturable land' was recorded as 1,55,100 acres, while in the previous year it was recorded as 54,200 acres. In the year 1970-71, land under the two aforesaid land uses was 26 thousand ha and 27 thousand ha, respectively. 'Permanent pastures and other grazing lands' accounted for 96,000 acres while 2,37,900 acres were recorded under this head during the previous year. The figure for the year 1970-71 was 72 thousand ha. The sharp fluctuations in the areas of the last two land-uses is apparently due to re-classification of area. Land under 'miscellaneous tree crops and groves' shrank from 30,200 acres in 1953-54 to 2,300 acres in 1964-65 mainly due to correct classification. However, it was recorded as 3 thousand ha in 1970-71. 'Culturable wastelands' occupied 1,98,600 acres in 1953-54; 1,35,800 acres in 1963-64 and 1,87,900 acres in 1964-65. Reasons of this reduction can be assigned to realistic classification and allotment of such lands for cultivation, colonisation and settlement oflandless persons. In 1970-71 culturable waste accounted for 41 thousand ha.

'Current fallows' and 'old fallows' accounted for 14,800 acres and 33,800 acres, respectively, during 1964-65. The respective figures for the year 1970-71 were 9 thousand ha and 5 thousand ha. The extent of such fallows depends upon the prevailing rainfall and climatic conditions. A tendency to keep such land under plough is also visible due to high prices of agricultural produce and facility of irrigation. Hilly tracts, where the land requires periodical rest, always account for the major portion of the current fallows, while in the *haveli* the extent of fallows is comparatively negligible.

The residual class is represented by 'net area sown'. In Damoh District this ranks only next to forest area. This is an ever-expanding land-use subject to the limitation of unfavourable climatic conditions and unremunerative prices in certain years.

During the years 1891-92 to 1926-27 the area runder crops (net) fluctuated between 4,03,300 acres in 1898-99 and 5,67,300 acres in 1915-16. In 1926-27, net cropped area was 5,21,100 acres. In the recent past 12 years, area sown increased

1. Season and Crop Reports of Madhya Pradesh.

from 5,44,100 acres in 1953-64 to 5,99,500 acres in 1962-63 and decreased to 5,78,400 acres in 1964-65. During the year 1970-71, net area sown accounted for 275 thousand ha.

The double-cropped area varies greatly with the character of the season and if the autumn rains fail it shrinks into insignificance. Double-cropping is practically confined to embanked fields in the rice tracts, wheat, linseed or gram being sown as a second crop after the paddy has been harvested or a catch crop of paddy has been taken in embanked wheat fields during the rains. During the period between 1891-92 and 1926-27 maximum double cropped area was 31,000 acres and lowest 3,000 acres. 'Area cropped more than once' is to be found more in Damoh Tahsil. However, under the impact of high prices and increased availability of irrigation this area has shown constant increase reaching the maximum of 54,000 acres in 1961-62. In 1964-65, it had come down to 47,000 acres. In 1970-71, land totalling 21 thousand ha was double cropped. The lands of the open valley of the Sonar known as *haveli* are almost uniformly composed of black soil of the light and friable kind but for rare gravelly out-crops. The depth is generally considerable and differences in productivity are mainly due to differences in the lie of surface. The fields are not usually embanked in the *haveli*, probably because the surface is too uneven and possibly also because the underlying rock is not of such a character as to facilitate the retention of water by embankment. The *haveli* is by far the most important and highly prized for its capacity to carry wheat, without fallowing and with but little change of crops, for an indefinite number of years. The surface, free from forests, viewed from the edge of hills in the cold weather presents the appearance of a level expanse of wheat with numerous groves marking the sites of prosperous looking villagers.

The Bearma Valley within the hills is also a closely cultivated tract, but the surface, though broken by small sandstone ridges, is much more level than the *haveli*. The soil is lighter coloured but free from gravel and of stiffer quality. The difficulty of working this soil had evoked the best qualities of the thrifty Lodhi with whom the Valley is thickly populated. Hence, to enable it to be worked, fields are on a much smaller scale and embankment is universal, and thus the labour of ploughing is reduced to the minimum. Double-cropping is practised; whenever the late monsoon rainfall permits it, a crop of wheat is secured even after a crop of paddy. The soil responds more easily to cultivation than that of the *haveli*. Fallows are scarce and in some villages always non-existent. The close chess-board type of cultivation offers the greatest contrast to the slovenly hugger-mugger farms of the *haveli*. Cultivation in short is more intensive and laborious. This valley along with the embanked portion of the Batiagarh group is the securest tract in the District though the wheat outturn of *rathia* (light-coloured inferior kind of soil) rarely, if ever, rises to that of the *haveli mund* (good black soil of loamy texture found in *haveli* tract).

Cultivation is concentrated in the two valleys traversed by the Sonar and the Bearma. But the conditions of agriculture in the two valleys are different.

The Menace of Kans

Kans (*Saccharum spontaneum*) has been an important problem of agriculture of the District. It has been stated in the Gazetteer[1] that the increase in old fallows, which was apparent at that time was represented by land overgrown by *kans*. The large amount of waste included in holdings, a very distinctive feature of the District, was stated to be due to the prevalence of *kans* grass. The vigour and the persistence of *kans* was responsible for large fallow areas in *haveli*. According to one opinion *kans* only gained a footing in the land of bad cultivators and that its prevalence was the result rather than the cause of misfortune. Another view on the problem was that deliberate fallowing in wheat soils, was very rare indeed. The tenant went on cultivating his fields with wheat and occasionally with *jowar* or gram in rotation until by some accident *kans* obtained a footing.

It has been estimated that 25,000 acres of Hatta Tahsil and 30,000 acres of Damoh Tahsil are even now overgrown by *kans*. It has been explained that shallow ploughing for a number of years, presence of clay in the soil, negligence in inter-cultural operations and summer cultivation and unbunded character of the land have assisted the *kans* to invade and hold the land.

However, the Government has been alive to the problem presented by *kans* - infested lands and, encouraged by previous years' experience, directed Central Tractor Organisation to station a fleet of D-7 tractors, 15 in number at Patharia in the year 1948-49. This was meant to cultivate and bring under plough *kans* infested land and fallow land and thus assist in the agricultural development of the region. In 1949-50, two units of HD-19 tractors, procured out of a loan granted by International Bank for Reconstruction and Develop-ment were allocated to Patharia centre. The rate of ploughing charges was Rs. 52 per acre with suitable provision for concession in the case of small cultivators.

Machine Tractor Station Scheme was set up to organise deep ploughing by mechanical means, namely, tractors and other complementary equipment which could not be undertaken by bullock-drawn implements in areas infested by *kans* or other pernicious weeds. In the year 1965-66, about 800 acres of fallow land were brought under coltivation through M.T.S. tractors alone. For tractorization work *taccavi* loan is given to the cultivators. It is recoverable in 10 annual instalments and carries 5.5 per cent interest. The charges for cultivated and fallow lands are Rs. 40 and Rs. 45, respectively, from October, 1963, onwards. A lower scale of charges was levied in previous years. M.T.S. tractors are helping to bring under cultivation 800 to 1,000 acres of land annually. at an economic cost, provided the fallow land is free from stumps, stones, etc.

1. *Damoh District Gazetteer*, pp. 84-85.
2. Damoh Settlement Report, 1914, p. 10.

The area ploughed under the M.T.S. Scheme from 1951-52 to 1969-70 is indicated in the Table below.

Table No. IV-2

Area Ploughed under M.T.S. Scheme

(In Acres)

S. No.	Name of Centre	Year	Cultivated Land	Fallow Land	Total Area
1.	Luhari	1951-52	1,680.14	1,203.22	2,883.36
2.	Chhapri	1952-53	1,588.74	223.91	1,812.65
3.	Turkai	1952-53	3,036.37	986.53	4,022.90
4.	Bangaon	1953-54	5,297.07	2,805.57	8,102.64
5.	Amkheda	1953-54	799.57	1,280.33	2,079.90
6.	Hatna	1954-55	3,032.55	481.42	3,513.97
7.	Umari	1954-55	3,185.24	571.76	3,757.00
8.	Chorai Gujora	1955-56	4,618.46	1,156.25	5,774.71
9.	Chandpur	1956-57	4,892.19	1,246.27	6,138.46
10.	Patan Bujurg	1957-58	3.518.00	814.00	4,330.00
11.	Barkhrera Sikabdar	1958-59	3,500.00	600.00	4,100.00
12.	Sigrampur	1959-60	4,500.00	1,500.00	6,000.00
13.	Hinoti Binti	1960-61	3,800.00	700.00	4,500.00
14.	Rasilpur	1961-62	2,600.00	500.00	3,100.00
15.	Rasi	1962-63	2,800.00	600.00	3,400.00
16.	Kethra	1962-63	2,800.00	900.00	3,700.00
17.	Sadgaon	1963-64	4,000.00	1,100.00	5,100.00
18.	Hindoria	1964-65	2,500.00	500.00	3,000.00
19.	Bakayan	1965-66	2,400.00	700.00	3.100.00
20.	Patharia, Satpara Hindoriya	1965-66	1,400.60	1,200.50	2,601.10
21.	Bakayan, Domoh Bandakpur, Bangaon	1966-67	1,827.85	402.56	2,230.41
22.	Phutera, Sitanagar	1967-68	1,916.53	317.88	2,234.41
23.	Luhari, Damoh Hatta, Amanganj (Panna)	1968-69	1,297.70	239.97	1,537.67
24.	Amanganj (Panna), Sojana (Damoh), Gwari	1969-70	667.22	271.95	939.17

Deep-ploughing by tractors will help in eradicating the menace of *kans.* Besides, the bunding and summer-cultivation of holdings and growing of green manure crops will further hold this menace in check.

Culturable Waste

The culturable waste land has been defined to include lands available for cultivation whether not taken up for cultivation or abandoned after a few years for one reason or the other. Such lands may be either fallow or covered with shrubs and jungles which are not put to any use. They may be in isolated blocks or within cultivated holdings. Land once cultivated but not cultivated for five years in succession is also included in this category.

Land Records statistics for the year 1953-54 returned an area of 1.99 lakh acres under culturable waste, i.e., 11.0 per cent of total area of the District. The land under this category came down to 1.88 lakh acres in 1964-65, about 10 per cent of the District area. This reduction is largely attributable to (i) a more realistic classification of land and consequent transfer of part of such land to permanent pastures and other grazing lands, (ii) allotment of government waste-land for cultivation, colonisation and settlement of landless persons and (iii) efforts of farmers to bring such land under plough.

Bulk of the 1.88 lakh acres of waste, it was reported,[1] could be reclaimed easily. It was estimated that 76,639 acres could be brought under cultivation immediately, 94,027 acres after some improvement, and the rest which consisted of uneconomical small patches of land, or large blocks of land were reclaimable only at a prohibitive cost.

The Wastelands Survey and Reclamation Committee of the Government of India which was appointed to locate culturable wastelands in large blocks for reclamation and resettlement, in its Report for Madhya Pradesh (1961) was of the opinion that the area of culturable wastelands might be discounted and that only a small percentage of wastelands was available in large-sized blocks. The distribution of such lands in blocks of different sizes in the year 1957-58 was as given below:

Table No. IV-3

Distribution of Culturable Wasteland, 1957-58

	Blocks		Area	
	(No.)	(%)	(Acres)	(%)
Below 15 acres	56,025	96.9	1,12,418	68.7
15-30 acres	1,456	2.6	28,842	17.6
30-50 acres	229	0.3	8,521	5.2
50-100 acres	79	0.1	5,279	3.2
Above 100 acres	40	0.1	8,613	5.3
Total	57,829	100	1,63,673	100

In Damoh District 5 large-sized blocks, each consisting of more than 250 acres, aggregating 4,606 acres owned by Government were offered for reclamation. They were located at Khutiguni, Komarkala, Chopra, Patharia and Singhpur in Hatta Tahsil. The entire area was found to be infested with weeds and jungle, requiring clearance by heavy tractors. The soil was found to be medium black in one block and medium black and laterite in other blocks. The area was in receipt

1. Tables of Agricultural Statistics of Madhya Pradesh for the year 1964-65, pp. 3 and 8.

of a rainfall of 50-55 inches. Perennial irrigation by construction of wells was found possible only in one village. The cost of reclamation was estimated at Rs. 50 per acre.

A survey of culturable wastelands undertaken in the District during the year 1962-63 also leads to similar results. It revealed that the total area of culturable waste lands was only 59,406 acres as against 1,46,884 acres reported in the returns of agricultural statistics for 1962-63, i.e., only 40.4 per cent of what reported in the Patwari papers.

The total number of blocks of culturable wasteland in the District was found to be 17,799 out of which 3,860 (21.7 per cent) blocks covering an area of 13,938 acres (23.5 per cent) were contributed by unoccupied lands. The number of blocks and area thereof in the two tahsils of the District in 1962-63 are given below.

Table No. IV-4

Distribution of Culturable Wastelands, 1962-63

Tahsil	Culturable Wasteland	Percentage of Culturable Wasteland to Total Geographical Area of Tahsil/District
1. Damoh		
No. of blocks	10,242	..
Area	32,501	4.0
2. Hatta		
No. of blocks	7,557	..
Area	26,905	5.4
Total of District		
No. of blocks	17,799	..
Area	59,406	4.6

Most of the blocks of culturable wasteland in the District were found to be scattered in small patches. The average area of each block worked out to 3.34 acres. It was 3.61 acres per block in unoccupied area and 3.26 acres in the occupied holdings. Classification of blocks according to size is shown below.

Size	Percentage
5 acres and less	83.2
5-15 acres	14.5
More than 15 acres	2.3

There were only five blocks of more than 100 acres with a total area of 1,214 acres of culturable wasteland in the unoccupied holdings.

The blocks of culturable wastelands in unoccupied area were not known to have ever been cultivated in the past except for unauthorized cultivation in a few of them. As regards the blocks in occupied holdings, 35 per cent of them were not cultivated for the last 5 to 10 years, 54.3 per cent for 10 to 20 years, and 7.1 per cent for over 20 years. The rest of the blocks, i.e., 3.6 per cent were not cultivated at all.

Various reasons have been assigned for the non-cultivation of culturable wastelands of occupied holdings. The chief reason is low productivity of soil owing to which cultivation becomes uneconomic. Majority of blocks could not be cultivated due to the presence of shrub jungles. Some blocks have also gone out of cultivation due partly to lack of initiative on the part of farmers to bring the land under cultivation and partly to poverty of the landholders. Soil-erosion, long absence of the owner, etc., are also responsible to some extent.

Inferior soils were found mostly in the culturable wastelands. Blocks numbering 13,101 and covering an area of 43,848 acres had *patarua* type of soil while 4,059 and 569 blocks covering 12,991 and 1,076 acres, respectively, were reported to have *mund* and *rathia* soils in 1962-63.

Majority of the blocks of culturable wastelands both in occupied and unoccupied areas were reported to be grown with grass and shrubs, and utilized for the grazing of cattle, Exploitation of these blocks for cultivation would require land development and soil-conservation measures through heavy agricultural machinery. Extension of irrigation facilities and use of chemical fertilizers will also be needed to increase the productivity of such lands. Tractorization would be required in about 10 per cent of the cases. Clearance of shrub jungles would be needed in about 2.4 per cent of the blocks. About 62 per cent of the blocks can be reclaimed with the help of ordinary ploughs. Filling of ditches and levelling of land would also be needed in a few cases. From the point of view of suitability of these lands after development and reclamation for raising of different crops, it was found that nearly half the area, i.e., 50.5 per cent can grow *kodon*, 19.3 per cent wheat, 19.0 per cent paddy, 4.3 per cent *jowar*, 3.5 per cent sesamum, 2.9 per cent gram, 0.4 per cent groundnut and 0.1 per cent maize.

Settlement of Culturable Wasteland

As regards utilization of culturable wastelands, the work of settlement of landless persons on an organized basis was started only under the Second Five Year Plan. Due to non-availability of such land in very large blocks on account of intensive cultivation, operations were mostly confined to allotment of land to landless labourers on individual basis. Under the scheme of settlement of culturable wastelands Government land cultivable by one pair of bullocks is allotted to one family. The land is reclaimed at Government expense before it is allotted.

Each allottee is also given a loan of Rs. 1,700 for purchase of bullocks and agricultural implements and for building a house. Half the amount spent on building the house is treated as grant, provided it is properly and fully utilized. The amount of loan is recovered in 10 annual instalments commencing from the second year. The work gathered momentum after it was placed under the single authority of the Director of Land Records.

A colony consisting of 5 families on 107 acres was established at Imlidol (Damoh Tahsil) in 1960. Again, in 1965-66, settlement of 21 families was done on 210 acres of Government wasteland in Damoh Tahsil. Culturable area to the extent of 6,449 acres was allotted on individual basis during the three years 1956-57 to 1958-59. Under a scheme of resettlement of landless agricultural workers, sponsored by the Government of India, 844 acres of wasteland was settled during the two years 1963-64 and 1965-66.

Irrigation

Early History

It is generally admitted that a rainfall of 30 inches, if favourably distributed, is sufficient to secure bumper crops. The important months are September and October when the success of both the *rabi* and *kharif* crops depends on timely rain, as both of them are in critical phases of development. But it is precisely in these months that the rainfall is most fitful. This uncertain and unpredictable behaviour of rainfall can be regulated, to a very large extent by artificial watering, and herein can be found the strongest justification for the construction of irrigation works.

Prior to 1908 irrigation was almost a negligible factor in the agriculture of the District. At 30 years' Settlement (1863-64 to 1893-94) only 1,745 acres were found irrigated. At the subsequent settlement this area rose to 3,495 acres of which more than three quarters were watered from wells or by hand from rivers. This was, however, quite a high figure and could be exceeded only in 1917-18, and this year may be said to have marked a real beginning in irrigated agriculture of the District.

Development of irrigation in the District may be said to have originated with recommendations of the Indian Irrigation Commission, 1901. In pursuance of the above recommendations investigations on irrigation schemes were started in Damoh District and extensive surveys were carried out from 1904 to 1908. Reginald Craddock, Chief Commissioner of Central Provinces and Berar, prepared a programme for construction of irrigation works which was accepted by the Government of India in 1910 after a good deal of correspondence. Works were started by the next year. Those proposals amongst others included projects for Damoh District as well. Again the failure of the rice crop in 1907 rivetted attention of the Government on the unprotected position of the *kharif* areas. Seizing the opportunity provided by cheap labour, the Deputy Commissioner, by January

1908, had four village works in progress at spots where existing *nistar* tanks only needed modification to be converted into useful little irrigation tanks. The Irrigation Department then began operations at Chiraipani near Hindoria and Ghangri (or Garaghat) near Nohta. Since then the work of construction of tanks did not cease and till the Settlement of 1908-1913 Garaghat (Ghangri), Richhai, Chiraipani, Baheria, Patna and Majgawan tanks had either been completed or were in advanced stage of construction. All had started providing irrigation, though the actual area irrigated was small, i.e., 245 acres. Their combined irrigation potential amounted to 9,856 acres. Another tank, Majhgawan, was taken over from Revenue Department.

It was expected that these tanks would render 61 villages potentially secure against famine. Water was first taken from Baheria tank in November, 1909, for the *rabi*. In December, 1910, some irrigation was done from Garaghat (Ghangri) and Richhai tanks. The area irrigated from these tanks was infinitely small, only 2.5 per cent of the irrigable area, as the peasants were averse to pay for water. Even the free supply of water for first three years from Patna and Majgawan tanks could evoke only feeble response from the farmers. Expenditure on irrigation was a futile liability, instead of a paying investment for them. The fear of the appearance of rust in his wheat crop was always lurking in the farmer's mind. Moreover, he lacked the knowledge required for irrigated farming, and even the District officers were ill-equipped to render any guidance or instruction in this matter. However, more tanks were constructed, namely, Mala (1913-14), Jamnera (1914-15), Hardua Muran (1917), Dhangour (1918) and Chhoti Deori (1921), and as their years of completion indicate, the pace of construction has slowed down much.

Non-utilization of irrigation potential proved a damper and further efforts to construct irrigation tanks were abandoned.

Post-Independence Period

There was complete lull in the further creation of irrigation tanks for about three decades. After the advent of Independence the attention of the Government was again drawn towards the necessity of irrigation on account of the recurring food shortages. Consequently, work was taken up on six Village Project schemes, namely, Nonpani, Koolari, Bhat Khamaria, Phutera, Alagsagar and Hardua. All these projects were completed in 1953, though some water for irrigation was available in 1950-51.

Since then this work has acquired a fresh lease of life and proceeded ahead with renewed vigour. During the First Five Year Plan period, six irrigation projects, namely, Barpati, Tejgarh, Jabera Jhalchri Ghana, Piparia, Jograj and Motinala were started creating irrigation potential of 11,530 acres. The total cost of these projects was Rs. 70.51 lakhs. During the Second Five Year Plan period seven irrigation projects were taken up under Collector's Sector, Community

Development, National Extension Service and Plan works. The total cost of these projects amounted to Rs. 36.85 lakhs and total irrigation potential to5,691 acres.

The Third Five Year Plan witnessed further activity in this direction. Twelve minor irrigation works were taken up for construction. On completion they are expected to bring an additional area of 3,204 acres under irrigation involving an outlay of Rs. 14.28 lakhs. A list or irrigation tanks maintained by the Public Works Department is given in Appendix.

In addition, eight projects are under survey and investigation. The estimated cost of these schemes is Rs. 56.53 lakhs. They are expected to benefit 7,430 acres of land.

Some of the completed projects deserve a special mention on account of the large outlays on them.

Daroli Tank

Daroli tank is a Scarcity Area Scheme taken up on account of failure of rains in 1957-58. It is located in mile 9 of Tendukheda-Taradehi road. An earthen dam with a pick-up weir on the down-stream side has been constructed under the scheme. The length of the bund is 44 chains and the maximum height of the tank 54 ft. The tank can hold 171.86 mcft, of water. It can irrigate about 3,500 acres of land of Damoh Tahsil. It was completed in 1963 at a cost of Rs. 33.53 lakhs.

Tejgarh Tank

The tank site is 4.5 miles to the right of mile 55 of Jabalpur-Damoh Road via Patan. An earthen bund, 17.48 chains in length has been thrown across the river Lanti near village Umaria. The maximum height of the bund is 80.3 ft. The net storage capacity of the tank is 201.99 mcft. of water. The designed irrigated area of the tank is 5,230 acres, i.e., 507 acres of *rabi* and 4,723 acres of *kharif* spread in 15 villages. The total cost of the project as per revised estimate is Rs. 42.71 lakhs. The project was completed in 1958.

Jabera Tank

The tank site is 0.5 mile to the left of mile 38 of Jabalpur-Damoh road. The tank was completed in 1958 at a cost of Rs. 11.17 lakhs. The bund runs to a length of 52.90 ch. with a maximum height of 47.8 ft. in the nullah bed. The tank has been designed to irrigate 2,250 acres of both *kharif* and *rabi*.

Motinala Tank

This tank is situated in Patharia village across Motinala at half a mile from Sagoni railway station on Bina-Katni line. Storage has been obtained by constructing a 21.59 chain long earthen dam across the nullah, which has a maximum height of 51.3 ft. in the nullah portion. The storage capacity of the project is 101.44 mcft. which is sufficient to irrigate the designed area of 1,667 acres. The length of the canals is 161 ch. An amount of Rs. 11.93 lakhs was spent over the project. The work was completed in 1968,

The tank site is 2½ miles to the left of mile 62 of Jabalpur-Damoh road. It was completed in the year 1957-58 at a cost of 4.39 lakhs. The project commands an area of 1,170 acres of *kharif* and *rabi* in Gwari, Barpati, Athai, Patera and Muderpati villages. For this a storage of 62.4 mcft. has been secured by constructing an earthen bund of 42 ch. in length. The maximum height of the bund in nullah portion is 32.4 ft. The total length of the channels is 198 ch.

Barpati Tank

This is an old tank which was constructed in 1913-14 by bunding the Sagar river. The tank site is approachable from mile 44 of Jabalpur-Damoh road, 9 miles to the left. The tank is designed to irrigate 6,600 acres of both *kharif* and *rabi* of 12 villages. The length of the bund is 82.60 ch. with a maximum height of 55 ft. in the nullah portion. The project comprises systems of three tanks, namely, Mala, Richhai and Jamnera. The project cost Rs. 7.12 lakhs.

Mala Tank

This is an old *malguzari* tank and was taken up for renovation during the Third Plan on account of the pressing demand of villagers. The work was completed in 1965 at a cost of Rs. 0.49 lakhs. The length of the bund is 18.72 ch. As this is a *nistari*-cum-irrigation tank, designed irrigation is limited only to 94 acres of Barrat village.

Barrat Tank

Responsibility for the undertaking of minor irrigation works, namely, sinking and deepening of wells, installation of *rahats* and pumping-sets lies with the Department of Agriculture.

Area Irrigated

As noted earlier, in the year 1917-18, acreage irrigated attained some respectable magnitude, i.e., 3,721 acres. Subsequent years saw steady growth of irrigation in the District, the area irrigated reaching 7,746 acres in 1926-27; 9,789 acres in 1942-43; 15,857 acres in 1951-52; 25,274 acres in 1961-62 and 30,613 acres in 1964-65, the last year having recorded the highest level reached since the inception of irrigation in the District. During the year 1970-71, there were 14.1 thousand ha. which were irrigated. Not only has there been an increase in absolute figures, but also in terms of the percentage of total cropped area in receipt of irrigation. This percentage was 3.9 in 1961-62 and 4.9 in 1964-65. The area under irrigation has increased in Damoh, Bandakpur, Banwar, Mala and Kumhari in which lighter soil fit for paddy cultivation is predominant. Tracts represented by Patharia, Hatta, Batiagarh, Patera and Damoh Blocks need irrigation most.

Sources of Irrigation

Canals constitute the principal source of irrigation in Damoh District and accounted for 87.3 per cent of the area irrigated in 1964-65. This percentage was 81.6 in the year 1970-71. They number 51. Wells though next in importance had little to contribute as a source of irrigation, i.e., only 10.6 per cent in 1970-71. Wells totalling 2,290 were being used for irrigation. *Kutcha* wells are not very

successful in the District owing to the friable nature of the soil. With only 0.1 thousand ha. the share of tanks in irrigated agriculture is negligible. However, in the same year 208 tanks were enumerated. Water was led from them through canals. 'Other sources' include bunding of nullahs which irrigated 7.1 per cent of the cropped area.

Water is found at a depth of 40 to 50 ft. It costs about Rs. 2,000 to construct a *kutcha* well. A *pucca* well may cost just double the amount. A well irrigates four to five acres of land. Well-irrigation is resorted to in Patharia, Damoh, Batiagarh, and Hatta Blocks. The scheme of boring and drilling of wells, which is designed to augment the supplies of water from the wells, was put into operation in 1965-66. Looking to the prevailing scarcity of water on account of scarce rains the scheme is bound to evoke good response from the cultivators.

The area consisting of Patharia, Damoh and Jabera Blocks provides opportunities for digging of wells, bunding of nullahs and flow-irrigation.

Crops Irrigated

In 1964-65, almost the entire benefit of irrigation, i.e., 99.9 per cent went to food crops. Rice had 14,103 irrigated acres (46.1 per cent), wheat 13,108 (42.8 per cent) and vegetables 2,306 (7.5 per cent). Considered in terms of the proportion of a crop raised through irrigation, rice had the benefit of 12.3 per cent while wheat had only 4.8 per cent. According to 1970-71 figures also food crops dominated the irrigated area with rice and wheat occupying respectively 6,047 and 6,747 ha followed by fruits and vegetables i.e., 972 ha.

Modes of Irrigation

Pumps, both diesel and electric, Persian wheels, *dekli* and *motes* are used for lifting water. According to the figures enumerated at the Censuses of 1956 and 1961, the number of electric pumps increased from just one to five and that of diesel pumps from 13 to 26. Persian wheels and *motes* appear to have declined in importance as their number decreased from 40 to 36 and from 1,689 to 1,591, respectively, during the same period. A look at the tahsilwise figures will show that all types of irrigation devices are found more in Damoh Tahsil.

Motes and Persian wheels irrigate about half acre per day and cost Rs. 150 and Rs. 500, respectively. A *dekli* irrigates still less, i.e., ¼ acre a day and may cost Rs. 100. A diesel pump commands a much larger area, i.e., 1 acre per day and its installation costs Rs. 3,500.

There are abundant possibilities for extension of irrigation by harnessing the present natural resources which have not been exploited so far.

The Sonar flows in a deep channel. The Bearma traverses the most rugged and broken portion of the District and during the greater part of its course it is confined between rocky cliffs, while such valleys when open are nowhere exten-

sive. Its principal tributaries have also a character resembling its own. As such, flow-irrigation by gravity may not be possible but suitable sites can be investigated for impounding water which may feed the thirsty fields. Similarly, irrigation through bunding of nullahs is another possibility which awaits full utilization. Reservoirs and tanks can also be constructed to augment irrigation.

The new possibilities of development in the field of irrigation had been given some shape by the year 1969-70 and a few schemes including flow irrigation among others, were either under way or proposed to be taken up. One such scheme prepared was Agricultural Financing Corporation Scheme for 26 villages of Damoh Block. The Scheme provided for the construction of 148 new wells, repair of 36 old wells, setting up of 227 electric and oil engine pumps and levelling of 2,000 acres of land at an estimated cost of Rs. 12.95 lakhs. Flow irrigation schemes already on their way up by 1969-70 also provided for loans to farmers from cooperative and land development banks. Besides, survey to mark out irrigable area on the banks of the rivers in the District was also being conducted jointly by the Revenue, Agriculture and Irrigation Departments. The survey was also intended for electrification of the area as to install electric pumps under the flow irrigation scheme. In addition, it was proposed to erect tube wells in the District in electrified areas. One such area proposed was in the neighbourhood of Datheria while another was near Damoh.

Field Embankments

The embanking of fields is resorted to with a view to bringing the benefits of artificial watering to the fields, with the essential difference that the land benefits by submergence and that the supplies of water cannot be regulated or controlled as in the case of conventional irrigation described in the foregoing paragraphs. It has been surmised that the practice is not so widespread as in the adjoining District of Jabalpur on account of the surface being too sloping to permit the construction of regular embanked fields.

At the Settlement of 1908-13 nearly 4,000 acres of wheat land was recorded as emdanked. Such areas are found in the small valleys to the south of the principal wheat-growing areas of the *haveli*, and usually yield two crops, wheat being sown even after a crop of paddy.

Soils

Ten classes of soils were distinguished at the last Settlement (1908-1913). These were *kabar I*, *kabar II*, *mund I*, *mund II*, *rathia*, *patarua I*, *patarua II*, *bhatua*, *sihar*, and *kachhar*. This classification is based on that used in common parlance of cultivators, but it may be noted that these names are, to a great extent, only adjectives. *Kabar* means clayey, *mund* crumbly, *rathia* stiff, *patarua* light, *bhatua* often applied to all wasteland, *sihar* sandy, and *kachhar* covers a wide variety of riverain soils.

The following Table gives distribution of soils in the District as at Settlement of 1908-13:

Table No. IV-5

Distribution of Soils

(In Acres)

Soil	Hatta Tahsil	Damoh Tahsil	District	Percentage
Kabar I	—	171	171	1
Kabar II	4,876	3,135	8,011	
Mund I	36,776	20,633	57,409	9
Mund II	95,637	1,33,395	2,29,032	39
Rathia	14,458	43,004	57,462	10
Pataruа I	42,040	76,592	1,18,632	21
Pataruа II	29,493	59,518	89,011	16
Bhatua	3,369	13,737	17,106	3
Sihar	1,957	4,115	6,072	1
Kachhar	724	576	1,300	

Good black soil was classed as *kabar* if of clayey, and *mund* if of loamy texture, each of these classes being sub-divided into two grades. *Kabar* is plentiful only in the Batiagarh Group where the finest *rabi* in the District is grown. Besides wheat, vegetables, sugarcane and cotton are grown on the *kabar* soil. *Mund* is the commonest soil of the District, chiefly found in the *haveli*. It grows steadily poorer as the junction of the Sonar and the Bearma is approached. Wheat and vegetables grow also on the *mund* soil.

An inferior kind of light coloured *kabar* was classed as *rathia*. It abounds in the valley of the Bearma in the southern part of the District. Poor soils other than those of a sandy type were styled *patarua*, a word in common use and signifying thin, in contradistinction to the term *mota* (fat) applied to good black soils. Within the *patarua* class, soil was sub-divided into I and II as it contained or did contain such an admixture of black soil as would enable it to grow inferior *rabi* crops. Next to *mund*, *patarua* is the most prevailing soil and is found in the villages of the hilly tract. *Patarua* is suitable for paddy, maize and *jowar*.

Sihar is the soft, fine wash-off from the Vindhyan sandstone hills which grows the best rice. A fertile sandy soil, found far from the hills in the Hatta Tahsil along the bank of the Bearma, has also been classed as *sihar*. Typical *sihar* is seen around Rajnagar near Damoh town. Stony land on hill-sides and slopes was classed as *bhatua*, *Kachhar* is the alluvial soil found in narrow strips along rivers, in which Kachhis and Dhimars grow vegetables.

Mund II is the most common soil in the District covering 39 per cent of the agricultural area at the last Settlement, followed by *patarua I* and *II* which covered

21 and 16 per cent of the area, respectively, *Rathia* soil covers 10 per cent of the area. followed by *mund I* which covered 9 per cent. *Bhatua*, *sihar* and *kabar* are rather uncommon covering 3, 1 and 1 per cent, respectively, of the cultivated area at the last Settlement. Richer soils, namely, *kabar*, *mund* and *kachhar* mostly fall in Hatta Tahsil. Inferior types of soils, namely, *rathia*, *patarua* and *bhatua* are found more in Damoh Tahsil. The most productive parts of the District are represented by Patharia, Jabera, Hatta and Damoh Blocks.

Crops

The principal agricultural seasons in Damoh District are the *kharif* or autumn and *rabi* or spring. In quantity as well as in importance rice representing *kharif* and wheat standing for *rabi* are the agricultural staples of the District. Other crops, important by virtue of the extensive areas on which they are grown, include *jowar*, gram, sesamum, linseed, *kodon* and lentil. *Rabi* group of crops is more important accounting for 65 per cent of the total cropped area in 1963-64. Food crops with 92 per cent of the area overwhelmed the non-food crops in the same year.

Wheat

At Thirty Years' Settlement (1863-64 to 1893-94) wheat was grown in 2,02,800 acres. At the end of this Settlement *rabi* was extended widely over light soils unfit to carry wheat on account of 'wheat-obsession'. In 1893-94 wheat covered 2,45,000 acres or 42 per cent of the cropped area. The corresponding figure for 1903-04 was 1,74,000 acres, or 34 per cent of the cropped area. The effect of famines of 1897 and 1900 is evidenced by the figures, the area having shrunk by 71,000 acres or 29 per cent. The lowest point touched by wheat was 49,000 acres in 1896-97, but this was because much of the land was too dry to be sown in that year. In 1926-27, wheat covered 2,57,000 acres. During the period 1951-52 to 1964-65, the year 1956-57 stands apart for the largest wheat acreage, i.e., 2,92,000 acres. This is also probably the largest acreage put under wheat in any single year. In 1964-65 wheat was raised in 2,71,000 acres. The production of wheat in 1963-64 amounted to 51,000 tons. This year was none too happy for wheat as the average production for five preceding years was recorded as 1,09,000 tons. Standard yield for wheat has been 460 lbs. per acre.

Haveli contains the rick of wheat land in the District. Wheat land, left unsown or badly ploughed owing to the continuous or untimely rainfall leaves the farmer anxious for fear of *kans* invasion, and once *kans* establishes itself it may be difficult to work up the land till *kans* has reached the end of its life-cycle. The *haveli* tenant is noted for borrowing the same amount of *rabi* seed when he is in temporarily reduced circumstances or when he is prosperous. He knows that if wheat land is let go for a single year it may be lost to him. The practice of embanking fields is very rare in the Sonar Valley, as a flat surface which is necessary for embanking fields is generally not found in Damoh District. The practice of constructing banks to prevent erosion or surface drainage at the lower end of a field

is quite common largely due to the encouragement given by the Government. In the smaller valleys, wedged in among the hill ranges to the south, embanked fields are not uncommon. These valleys largely consist of light sandy soils devoted to the growth of rice, but in the lowest portions black soil occurs, and is embanked to grow wheat often after a crop of rice. Such land is the most valuable in the District.

After the previous crop has been harvested the field is ploughed twice with the *desi* plough. One operation by bakhar is also given. Sowing takes place in October when the cold weather has set in and harvesting takes place in March. Seed is sown either by dibbling method or broadcast, at the rate of 60-80 lbs. per acre. Wheat is often sown mixed with gram generally in the proportion of 3:1. This proportion is not a fixity and depends upon a number of factors. A field of mixed wheat and gram is known as *birra*. This practice obtains principally in the open unembanked fields of the Sonar Valley. The admixture of gram diminishes the exhausting effect of cropping as plants of the pea tribe are able to assimilate nitrogen from the air. In the embanked fields of the south wheat is commonly sown alone. Wheat crop is seldom weeded. Where available two waterings are provided to the crop.

During the first decade of this century three varieties of wheat were grown in the District, namely, *kathia*, *jalaliya* and *pissi*. The earlier varieties have been replaced by new high-yielding rust resistant varieties. C-591 introduced in 1947 is the most common variety found in the District. It is quality grain suitable for timely sowing under irrigated conditions, gives high yield and is widely adopted. Hy-65 and Hy-11 came to be sown from the year 1956. They are high-yielding and resistant to black rust. The light red coloured *kathia* is also sown in some parts of the District. Beginnings have also been made with the high-yielder Mexican Sanora-64. In 1966 it was tried in 140 acres.

Rust or *gerua* is the most common disease to which wheat is subject. It is produced by rainy or cloudy weather especially if it occurs early in the cold season before the plants have come into ear. The grain turns a yellowish red. The progress of rust is very rapid, a whole field being destroyed in a single night. The introduction and extension of rust-resistant varieties have largely controlled this disease. Powdery mildew attacks the crop in March. White to drab coloured loose cottony masses of the fungus appear on all aerial parts of the plant. In case heavy attack is expected it is recommended that the crop should be dusted with finely powdered sulphur at the rate of 15 lbs. per acre every fortnight.

Wheat is liable to attack by a number of pests also. The stemborer bores into the stems and kills central shoots. The wheat aphids suck juice of young grain and feed on stem. The grasshoppers as nymph damage the leaves of the plant. As remedial measures dead hearts are pulled out and destroyed and the crop dusted with BHC or D.D.T. in early stages.

Hoar-frost sometimes dries up the ears or makes them very small when they are called *jhiri*. Sharp frost is often experienced at nights, especially in the hill-valleys, and if occurring late in the season when wheat is in ear it sometimes destroys the whole crop. Violent hailstorms are not infrequent about spring time, but there is a tract towards the north of the District which seems peculiarly liable to them, and comprises the large villages of Bhainsa, Hinota Kalan, Gaisabad and Raneh.

Rice

At Thirty Years' Settlement (1863-64 to 1893-94) rice occupied 25,000 acres. In 1893-94, rice covered 75,000 acres or 13 per cent of the cropped area. The corresponding figure for 1903-04 was 51,000 or 10 per cent of the cropped area. The effect of the famines of 1897 and 1900 is evidenced by the figures, the area having shrunk by 24,000 acres or 32 per cent. In 1926-27, rice was grown on 67,000 acres. A glance at the figures of recent years is enough to impress the fact as to the speed with which rice cultivation has spread in the District. With 86,000 acres in 1951-52, rice cultivation reached steadily the high water mark of 1,11,000 acres in 1964-65, i.e., till the period under review. The wide gulf that separated wheat and rice as regards huge difference in acreage has been narrowed down considerably.

In 1893-94, outturn of rice amounted to 29,800 tons. This was somewhat a favourable year for rice as the outturn for the quinquennium ending 1893-94 had averaged 20,800 tons. The standard yield has been reckoned as 610 lbs. per acre.

In the beginning of this century rice was principally grown in the hilly country in the south of Damoh Tahsil and not much in Hatta. Now this position has changed much. It is grown on the poor *patarua* or *rathia* soils and also on *sihar* on the regular sandy riceland. It is also sown in embanked black soil fields as a catch crop before wheat. It was almost entirely grown from the broadcast seed. The transplantation system was unknown but the germs of the idea were there, for spontaneous rice was sometimes uprooted from fallow fields and added to the young crop standing in cultivated land.[1] Even in 1963-64, this practice was not much in vogue as only 1,326 acres or 1.20 per cent of rice area was raised as a transplanted crop. However, with the steady increase in the bunding of agricultural land, there is continuous expansion in transplanted paddy area.

The highest form of rice cultivation is known as *machua*. This requires a heavy burst of rain to enable the cultivator to plough his fields into a semi-liquid puddle of mire in which the seed, already artificially germinated in baskets, is thrown about a month after the beginning of the rains and then pressed in by driving over it a *bakhar* turned upside down. The advantage of this method is that it reduces subsequent weedings to a minimum of one and mixes the manure or fertilizer applied to the soil. This method is applied in better class of fields. The alternative to this method is *topa* or *jhura* method under which the seeds are sown

1. Damoh Settlement Report, 1908-13, p. 9,

in fields which have been dry-ploughed. This system is followed on hilly or stony land where *machua* method is impracticable. The crop requires to be weeded twice. The outturn is about 25 per cent less than that obtained in *machua*. The Japanese method is post-Independence innovation introduced in paddy culture in India, wherein seeds are sown firstly in the nursery and after six weeks the plants are uprooted smoothly and then transplanted in the main fields which are kept ready to receive them.

The benefit of manuring is fully understood in rice, and at all events the cultivator has little to learn in this respect.

A number of varieties of rice were prevalent formerly, the best of them called Antarved. It continues even now. It is a scented variety with long and white grain giving high yields. Other old varieties are known as Suphed, Sinkia, Sukarmusa, Baghmuch, Ganjakola and Jhunasar. Improved strains now being spread in the District are EB-17, Chhatri and Lalloo.

The principal disease of paddy is blast. Spindle shaped spots with brown margins and grey centres are formed on the ears. Affected neck of the ears and the nodes become dark coloured causing the affected portion to break. It can be checked by spraying the nursery with bordeaux mixture 5:5:50 or other copper fungicides, or the seedlings may be dipped in the above fungicide before transplanting. Paddy stem-borer is active in March-April. The caterpillar bores into the stem, the central shoot withers and produces dead-hearts. The rice grasshopper damages the crop both as nymph and adult. It devours the leaves and tender grains. It is usually active from September to November. Paddy-bug is the major pest of the crop. Sometimes the crop may be destroyed completely. The bug sucks the milk or sap and tender grain. For getting rid of the stemborer the stubbles after the harvest should be collected and destroyed. The crop should be sprayed with 0.05% Endrin emulsion. For eradicating grasshopper deep ploughing of field followed by dusting 5% B.H.C. dust at the rate of 8 kg. per acre is recommended. Scrapping of bunds to expose and destroy egg masses and dusting 5% B.H.C. dust at the rate of 10 kg. per acre are also advocated. For extirpating bug the following remedial measures are used: (I) clean-cultivation, remove grasses and weeds along bunds and in fields, (ii) collection and destruction of egg masses in early stage and adults in later stage. and (iii) dusting 5% B.H.C. dust at the rate of 8-10 kg. per acre.

Jowar

Jowar was grown on 26,600 acres at the Thirty Years' Settlement. In 1893-94, *jowar* covered 35,400 acres or six per cent of the cropped area. Unlike wheat and rice famine conditions did not produce any retarding effect on this crop. Loss for wheat was gain for *jowar*. Tenants who could not afford wheat seed grew *jowar*. But with the return of better seasonal conditions, there was a tendency for the restoration of old order. In 1926-27, *jowar* covered 44,600 acres, though in 1915-16 it had reached the high level of 87,600 acres. In the year 1964-65, *jowar* accounted for only 47,400 acres.

It is evident that on the whole *jowar* area has remained stagnant, influenced only by vicissitudes of climatic conditions. In 1963-64 production of *jowar* had amounted to 14,700 tons, the average for the preceding five years being 16,400 tons and standard yield 550 lbs. per acre.

Jowar is principally sown in the *haveli* and in *geunra* land in the hilly country. It is sometimes sown mixed with *tur* in the proportion of 6:1 and also with *urad* and *mung* in the proportion of 8:1:1. A large proportion of *jowar* is sown on poor soils. The land is not prepared very carefully and the seed is sown at the first break of the rains before rice. The crop is weeded by hand with a hoe and the harvest takes place at the end of December and the beginning of January. The stalks are cut off half way down and the lower half left standing in the field, much of their value for fodder being thus lost. Generally, local varieties are sown in the District and are known as Bedra, Jhunka and Damra.

Smut or *kandua* does enormous damage to the *jowar* crop. It appears during wet weather. It affects the grain of *jowar*. Individual grains are transformed into conical spore sac which when broken is found to be filled with dark smut spores. It can be effectively checked by dressing the seed before sowing with fine sulphur at the rate of 1:200 to 250. Organo-mercurial can also be used (1:400). The stem-borer of *jowar* is of common occurrence in *jowar* areas. It can be checked in the early stages by spraying 0.16 per cent D.D.T., or dusting five per cent B.H.C. Clean-cultivation, including the burning of stubbles is also recommended. The *jowar* fulgorid and aphids are controlled by spraying 0.16 per cent D.D.T. or dusting five per cent B.H.C.

Pulses

In the year 1963-64, a total of 1,04,800 acres or 17 per cent of the total cropped area of the year was put under pulses. The principal pulse crop is gram (61,400 acres) followed by lentil (22,600 acres). Other crops are *urad* (7,200 acres), *mung* (4,400 acres). *tur* (6,900 acres) and *lakh* (1,900 acres).

Gram

At Thirty Years' Settlement 24,300 acres were recorded under gram. In 1893-94, gram covered 52,000 acres or nine per cent of the cropped area. The corresponding figure for 1903-04 was 45,100 or again nine per cent of the cropped area. In 1925-26, gram contributed 56,200 acres. Between the years 1951-52 and 1964-65, the highest gram area, i.e., 61,500 was obtained in 1957-58 and the lowest, i.e., 43,200 in 1964-65. The production in 1963-64 reached 10,200 tons though the average for the past preceding five years was 11,700 tons. The standard yield was taken as 400 lbs. per acre.

Gram is sown in poor soil, which will not grow wheat. As noted earlier it is grown mixed with wheat in the *haveli* and also as a second crop after rice. It is sometimes sown mixed with linseed in the proportion of 5:1. It is sown at the

same time as wheat. Method of cultivation is also similar. Seed at the rate of 25 to 30 kg. per acre is either broadcast or sown with *nari*,(i.e., the sowing implement).

Gram-caterpillar does enormous damage to the crop. This green moth feeds on tender foliage and pods. It pupates in the soil. It can be controlled by dusting B.H.C. 10 per cent or D.D.T. 5 per cent.

Foot-rot is the main disease of gram. The affected plants dry up from top downwards, leaves become pale green and later turn yellow and ultimately drop down. The collar portion of the plant becomes dark brown. Rogueing out the sick plants has been recommended as a control measure. Wilt is another disease which overtakes the gram crop. The affected plants become stunted with pale yellow green leaves curled downwards. Later the plants wither and die. Recommended measures are late sowing of seed, deep ploughing and use of resistant varieties.

Oilseeds

Oilseed crops occupied 49,700 acres or eight per cent of the total cropped area of the District in 1963-64. As amongst oilseed crops pride of place goes to linseed which commanded 25,137 acres. Sesamum with 16,700 acres ranked second in importance. Other crops, though relatively of minor importance, are groundnut (3,900 acres). rape (2,500 acres) and *ramtil* (1,500 acres).

Linseed area is subject to violent fluctuation and has not registered any advance over the last 75 years. During recent years the highest acreage of 30,800 was recorded in 1964-65 and the lowest, 11,500 in 1957-58. Production of linseed in 1963-64 was 1,800 tons and standard yield was 180 lbs. per acre.

Linseed is grown on wheat land and occasionally as an after-crop to rice. It is also grown in mixture with gram. Eight to ten kg. of seed is sown per acre. Drilling method has now been adopted almost universally. Rust harms linseed considerably. Now, rust-resistant varieties of linseed are also available.

Sesamum

Sesamum was responsible for 16,800 acres at Thirty Years' Settlement. In 1893-94, it covered 25,900 acres or four per cent of the cropped area. Ten years later, i.e., in 1903-04, it covered 50,700 acres or ten per cent. This steady growth in the popularity of sesamum was at the expense of linseed and was attributed to the fact that it is less troublesome or risky in comparison to linseed. Moreover, in those days of high prices of oilseeds, few tenants could resist a gamble in sesamum.[1] In 1925-26 only 26,100 acres were sown under sesamum. Since 1951-52 the lowest point was touched in 1952-53 with 14,900 acres and highest in 1958-59 with 44,100 acres. In 1963-64 the total yield was 660 tons as against the average of 940 tons for the preceding five years, the standard yield being 150 lbs. per acre.

1. Damoh District Settlement Report, 1908-13, p. 13.

Sesamum is grown as a rain-crop in the District and there are two varieties with black and white seeds. The black-seeded variety is sometimes grown on black soil or on *kachhar* land, and both kinds are grown on poor soil with the hilly millets. One mixture is sesamum-*tur* with four parts of sesamum and one part of *tur*. This crop does not require much care and is frequently sown on newly broken up and imperfectly cleared land. The stalks and leaves afford some assistance to the soil in the nature of manure. The seed is sown in July and the crop matures in November, the white-seeded variety being ready first. Sesamum does well in a dry year but may be injured by heavy rain before the plants have come into pod. Sesamum varieties are Bhadela, Kali, Maghai and Safed.

Kodon-Kutki

These small millets do not command the same position as they used to. In 1891-92 they were grown in 54,500 acres. The corresponding area in 1921-22 was 41,000 acres. In 1963-64, the area had shrunk to 16,000 acres. *Kodon* and *kutki* constitute the favourite food of the Gonds and are mainly grown in the tracts inhabited by them. They are sown in the poor *patarua* and *bhatua* soils, *kutki* being grown on even inferior land to that for *kodon*. The poor soils on which they are grown require resting fallows. A crop of *kodon* is sometimes raised in combination with *tur* in the proportion of 4:1.

Fruits and Vegetables

These crops, though providing what are termed protective foods essential for balanced diet, are grown in very small areas, i.e., only in 3,360 acres or 0.6 per cent of the cropped area in 1963-64. The principal fruits are guavas (100 acre) and mangoes (230 acres); and chief vegetables potatoes (830 acres), sweet potatoes (505 acres) and onions (220 acres).

Agricultural Implements

The principal agricultural implements are *desi* plough or *bakhar* and *desi nari* or *nagar*. The *desi* plough or *hal* is employed for deep ploughing. It has a pointed spike with which the furrow is made. It weighs about 20-25 kg. and costs Rs. 20. It lasts for three years. The *bakhar* or paring-plough is used for ordinary preparation of the field. A *bakhar* weighs 25 kg., costs Rs. 25 and gives service for three years. The *bakhar* has a horizontal blade four inches wide and 20 inches long which scrapes up the earth. *Nari* is a smaller plough than the *hal* but has a longer spike. It is used for sowing and a bamboo tube trails beind it by a string through which the seed is dropped into the furrow.

Paraina is a goad pointed at one end and with a flat piece of iron at the other for cleaning the earth off the *hal* or *bakhar*. The ploughshare is called *phar* and the share of the *nari* is *phar* or *kusya*. The strip of the iron attached to the *bakhar* is known as *pans*. The pole to which the yoke is fixed is *haris* and the handle of the plough is *muthia* and that of the *bakhar*, *nijona*. *Jua* is the yoke which is in two pieces, one of which goes over the neck of the bullocks and the other under.

Pacha is a rake with five spikes used for drawing the grain into the winnowing baskets after it has been threshed. *Obi* is the spud used for fencing the threshing floor. *Hansia* is a sickle, *kulhadi* is an axe, *kodali* a pick-axe and *phaora* or *khurpi* a hoe.

Duffan or *tiffan* is an implement which is used for sowing purposes. It is made of iron and weighs 30 kg. It costs anywhere between Rs. 60 and Rs. 60 and gives active service for five years. There is one main funnel to which are attached two or three hollow iron tubes which are fixed with the base of a plough. This implement is drawn by bullocks. *Duffan* and *tiffan* appeared in the District in the year 1957-58 and their use has spread to about one-fifth of the cultivators.

In 1956, the number of bulls and bullocks and male buffaloes used for work was 239 for 100 ploughs. The average cultivated area per plough worked out to 11 acres in the same year. The corresponding figures for 1961 were 229 and 10, respectively.

Agricultural operations are still by large carried on with the help of the old traditional implements. For example, in 1956, there were only 29 iron ploughs as against 52,863 wooden ploughs. Their number increased to 193 in 1961 as compared to 63,568 of wooden ploughs. The reasons for adherence to old implements are not far to seek. The old implements are locally manufactured and are relatively cheaper. The skill necessary to operate them is inherent. Moreover, the bullocks are also not strong enough to work the improved iron-made heavy implements.

For the same reasons large scale mechanisation is neither preferred nor is feasible. Poverty and illiteracy of cultivators and smallness of holdings are other limiting factors.

Manures and Fertilizers

In the opening years of this century manure was little used except for rice and garden crops. In the cultivation of rice the application of manure had become an established practice, its utility being fully realized by the rice growers. However, cow-dung, except for the rainy season, when it was not possible to use it as fuel, was turned into fuel-cakes. But even during this wet period, the full benefits of the dung could not be realised as a large proportion of the cattle was away in the forests for grazing. Fortunately, that position no longer obtains and the cow-dung is now turned into farm-yard-manure or compost.

Fertilizers are in use for more than last 15 years. Nitrogenous fertilizers in the form of ammonium sulphate, urea, ammonium sulphate nitrate, calcium ammonium nitrate and phosphatic fertilizers in the shape of superphosphate are commonly applied. The crops which receive the heaviest doses of fertilizers in order, are rice, wheat and vegetables. Treatment of *jowar*, gram and *masur* with fertilizers is also being gradually adopted by the cultivators. There were, by 1969-

70, as many as 22 fertilizer distribution centres in the District. The chemical fertilizers were being distributed through the agency of cooperative societies. Distribution through private business men on a limited scale, was also started from 1969.

Green manuring is gradually becoming popular for supplying nitrogen to the soil. Kopargaon *mung*, *sunn* and *dhaincha* seeds are recommended for this purpose. These crops are sown in the month of June and when they attain the height of four feet they are pressed in the fields with *bakhar* so that they rot after a week and benefit the soil by their nutrients. Green manuring is practised before sowing the main *kharif* crop, namely, paddy. Kopargaon *mung* as a method of green-manuring was introduced in 1966.

Silts of rivers and tanks are not used for replenishing the fertility of the soil. The utility of leaves as a manuring agent is not appreciated by the farmers. The practice of seating goats and sheep in the fields to take advantage of their droppings is fairly common, particularly after *rabi* harvest.

Fallowing, mixed-cropping and rotation of crops also help the land to recoup its lost fertility. The extent of fallowing is not the same as it used to be due to high prices of agricultural produce, better agricultural practices and application of agricultural inputs. But poor soils have to be given rest. *Patarua II* and *bhatua* after two or three years' cropping are thrown out of cultivation and left as fallow for three to five years.

The refreshing effect of gram on worn-out fields has been realised for long, for gram possesses the virtue of fixing nitrogen in the soil. As already noted a number of mixed-cropping patterns form part of the agricultural practices of the District. While they provide a sense of security to the cultivator against total failure of one crop, they also help in maintaining fertility status of the soil.

Like mixed-cropping, rotation of crops is also a practice of long standing, though not systematic and widespread. The following crop rotation has been advocated by the Agricultural Department for the District: paddy-wheat; paddy-masur; maize-potato; fallow-wheat.

The practice of manufacturing compost which enables the conversion of all wastes, trash, leaves, farm-residues, etc., into a productive manure is establishing itself in the rural areas. As regards local bodies, only Municipal Council, Damoh, has taken up preparation of compost as part of Urban Compost Scheme since 1962-63. Town-refuse is converted into compost by adding sewage and night-soil. In the same year, the Municipal Council was advanced a sum of Rs. 20,000 as loan for purchase of a tractor and a trailer for haulage of refuse and compost.

Compost

Seeds

The cultivators are well aware of the usefulness of improved strains of seeds

in increasing the farm yields, and when once convinced of its substantial gain, take to it readily. Block seed-stores and co-operatives supply major part of the demand for seeds. The Government Agricultural Farm of the District meets a tenth of the total demand. The agency of registered seed-growers is also deployed for the multiplication of approved progenies of seeds. There are three classes of such growers A, B and C, who are provided special facilities and concessions for the production of those seeds as well as special rates for their purchase by the Government.

High-yielding and disease-resistant strains of seeds, namely, C 591, Hy 11, Hy 65 in case of wheat and E.B. I in case of rice, have been introduced in the District and have become quite popular. Improved varieties of groundnut, namely, AK-12-24, Halda and Small-Japan not only give high yield of the crop but the kernel also contains a higher percentage of oil. Kopargaon *mung* is rearly ripening. It provides both grain to the farmer and green manure to the field.

Hybrid maize, hybrid *jowar* and hybrid *bajra*, which have earned reputation for their high yields, have been introduced in the District. In 1965-66, the area under the first two crops was 150 and 200 acres to begin with. Similarly Sanora-64, a dwarf Mexican wheat, was sown in 140 acres as an experimental measure. These are the indications that the District is on the threshold of agricultural prosperity.

Attempts are being made to produce different types of good quality fruit plants of mango, orange, lemon and guava. Fruit plants are distributed through the Block agency.

Pests and Diseases

Like all living organisms, agricultural crops are also exposed to the attacks of a multitute of pests and diseases. They have been referred to earlier while describing the principal crops of the District. They have been responsible for enormous damage in the past, for example, in case of prolonged breaks in monsoon caterpillars bred with such rapidity in rice and *kodon* crops that weeding was rendered impossible. Rust has been the bane of agriculture of the District. It has considerably menaced the wheat cultivation.

Serious outbreaks of rust had occurred till the fifties of this century. But there was no known remedy. The cultivator stood helplessly in the face of the calamity and remained a silent spectator to the decay and disappearance of his crop and took it as his inevitable fate. It is said that the Romans had an annual festival at which the rust gods were propitiated and their aid was invoked to protect the crops from rust.

However, the frequent visitations and devastations brought by this epidemic underlined the imperative need for evolving a seed which had the quality of immunity from rust. The search for such a strain ultimately culminated in the inauguration of a research scheme at Powerkheda Farm in 1941 which had its

aim of breeding of a strain resistant to black-stem rust and suited to the black soil areas. The ceaseless efforts were amply rewarded with the evolution of hybrid strains of wheat. This may rightly be claimed as one of the outstanding contributions of agricultural science which saved agriculture from enormous losses. In recent years three types of measures have been developed to keep their virulence in check, namely, adoption of improved farm practices, i.e., timely sowing, clean cultivation, etc., use of strains which will resist the invasion of these maladies, and use of insecticides and pesticides consisting of pre-sowing seed treatment and spraying and dusting of crops with chemicals effective in a particular case.

In the year 1956, modern plant protection measures were started. The plant protection unit is stationed at Damoh. The headquarters of Blocks also have their units. The chain of these units covers the entire District and is pressed into service whenever an S.O.S. is received.

A number of weeds also infest the fields and arrest the growth of plants. They consist of *nagarmotha*, *bathua* and *dub* and are quite common in the District. Weedicide 2-4-D is used for eradicating this menace.

As regards the damage from wild animals, the *haveli* is comparatively untouched except for those villages which lie along its margin under the hills and on the banks of rivers where ravines and scrub jungle harbour pigs. The farmer of the hills speaks with envy of the *haveli* cultivatior from whose budget the cost of fencing and watching is absent and who need not go to his field after sowing till harvest. In the hilly tract and in parts of Bearma Valley fencing is universal and the cultivator has to spend from two to four months of the year on platforms watching his fields. Besides *machan* and fencing, various devices are resorted to for warding off these pests, namely, lining the bottom of the fence with *til* stalks to keep out hares, crying at the top of voice to frighten them away, using a sling and a lash of plaited sunn some 10 to 12 feet long which is cracked like a stock-whip. The physical features of the District provide shelter to these wild animals.

District Agriculture Office

The District Agriculture Office was set up in 1956, with a view to projecting the activities of the State Department of Agriculture. These activities are designed to improve the techniques of cultivation and productivity of land. The District Agriculture Officer, now designated as Deputy Director of Agriculture, is responsible for the proper implementation of all these activities. He is assisted by two Agricultural Assistants in handling the work of Plant Protection Scheme and Machine Tractor Station Scheme. The Deputy Director of Agriculture also controls and guides the work of the seven Agricultural Extention Officers who are responsible for the execution of agricultural improvement schemes in their respective Blocks. Each Agricultural Extension Officer is assisted by 10 Gram Sewaks.

Community Development Programme

This Programme was launched in the District in October 1953, with the inauguration of the Patharia National Extension Service Block in Damoh Tahsil. The primary aim of this Programme is to transform the rural life in all the spheres. The improvement of agriculture, the basic activity of the villages, formed the core of this Programme. Not only have new techniques of agriculture been introduced but the entire thinking of the rural masses has undergone a change. The progress of this Programme has been described in Chapter IX of this volume.

Crop Competitions at various levels are organised so that a competitive spirit may be instilled in the agriculturists for obtaining higher levels of agricultural productivity by following improved methods of agriculture. The results achieved in village-level and district-level crop competitions are as under:

Crop Competitions

Table No. IV-6
Crop Competitions

Crop	Year	Level	Highest Yield (Quintals per Acre)
Wheat	1963-64	Village	3.73
Paddy	1964-65	Village	9.4
Do	Do	District	17.45
Wheat	1965-66	District	14.74
Do	Do	Village	15.30
Do	1966-67	Village	29.88
Do	Do	District	(Not Organised)
Paddy	1967-68	Village	33.20
Wheat	Do	Do	21.00
Do	Do	District	16.24
Paddy	1968-69	Village	16.32
Wheat	Do	Do	35.60
Paddy	1969-70	Do	28.60
Wheat	Do	Do	28.76
Do	Do	District	27.65

Agricultural Farms

The farms established by the Department of Agriculture bring the message of improved agriculture to the surrounding area from where it is expected to percolate to the remote areas and then cover the entire District. They also serve the purpose of multiplication of approved varieties.

Damoh Farm, established in 1918, can legitimately boast to be one of the earliest farms of the State. It is situated at a distance of 1½ miles from Damoh town and covers an area of 165 acres. The soil of the Farm is clayey loam.

Irrigation is provided by Karondi nullah and a well. Paddy, wheat and gram crops are raised on the Farm. It serves as a seed multiplication and demonstration farm.

Jabera Farm also functions as seed-multiplication and demonstration farm. It lies on Jabalpur-Sagar road. It was started in 1959-60 on an area of 93 acres. Soil is clayey loam and sandy loam. It mainly grows paddy seed.

A nursery garden was established at Damoh, at a distance of a mile from the city in 1963 as a Third Five Year Plan scheme. It extends over an area of 9.4 acres. The soil of the garden is clayey loam. It was felt by the State Government that the development of fruit production on sound and scientific basis depended upon supply of plant material of reliable parentage and outstanding and guaranteed performance. Therefore, it was proposed to establish a subsidiary nursery as a part of the overall scheme of "Establishment of Progeny Orchards". One Agricultural Demonstrator of the Horticulture Development Scheme is in charge of the garden. The aim of the garden is to produce and supply different types of fruit plants of improved germ-plasm.

Co-operative Farming

The principle of co-operation in the field of agriculture has been extended to this District also. By the year 1966, there were 14 joint farming co-operative societies and 5 collective farming co-operative societies. The first society was established at Laklaka on the 22nd June, 1960. On account of the prevailing drought conditions, agricultural operations of these societies have received a set-back.

Similarly, ten better farming societies with a total membership of 946 are also functioning in the District. These societies do credit business. They also supply agricultural implements, seeds, fertilizers, pesticides, etc., to their members.

Animal Husbandry

Total livestock number of the District according to 1961 Census was 5,86,471. This number showed an increase of nine per cent over that of 1956. Bulk of the livestock consisted of cattle, being 74 per cent of the total. Buffaloes constituted the next numerous category and worked out to 13 per cent of the total livestock. Though second in order of importance, they were numerically much less in comparison to cattle. Cattle and buffaloes both registered an increase of nine per cent over the 1956 figures.

Cattle and buffaloes of the District do not conform to any recognised breed. Generally, the cattle are of medium-built, length being 60-65 inches, height 45-50 inches and weight 300-500 lbs. Their milk-capacity ranges from 200 ml. to 2 litres per animal per day. However, the maximum yield of five litres in case of cows and 12 litres in case of buffaloes has been recorded.

Sheep numbered 7,843 and goats 58,172 at the 1951 Census. During the five years 1956-61, while the number of sheep remained static, goats increased by 15 per cent. Sheep are maintained primarily for mutton and goats for milk and mutton. The wool yielded by sheep is of coarse, hairy type. There is no recognised breed of sheep and goat found in the District.

Sheep and Goats

Cattle in Relation to Cropped Area

The number of main categories of cattle and buffaloes per thousand acres of cropped area in the Census years 1956 and 1961 is shown below.

Table No. IV-7

Cattle, Buffaloes and Cropped Area

Categories	Per 1,000 Acres of Net Cropped Area (1956)	Per 1,000 Acres of Total Cropped Area 1961	1966
1	2	3	4
1. Bulls and bullocks over 3 years used for work	220	226	212.2
2. Other bulls and bullocks	4	8	14.9
3. Cows	228	211	200.2
4. Young stock (cattle)	250	242	212.6
5. Buffalo bulls and bullocks over 3 years used for work	2	3	1.9
6. Other buffaloes	1	—	1.1
7. Cow-buffaloes	67	61	51.6
8. Young stock	55	57	47.1
9. Total bulls and bullocks and male buffaloes over 3 years used for work (Sl. No. 1 and 5)	222	229	215.9

The number of work buffaloes per 1,000 acres of cropped area is negligible in comparison to work cattle. This is due to the fact that bullocks are preferred for ploughing fields and other agricultural operations. Moreover, cattle are not slaughtered to the same extent as buffaloes due to social, religious and economic factors. She-buffaloes are kept for milk production and that is why their number is not so small as that of he-buffaloes, but they are not so numerous as cows.

There were 52,892 ploughs in the District in 1956. The number of bulls and bullocks and male buffaloes over three years of age and used for work per

Working Cattle Plough Ratio

100 ploughs worked out to 239. The same ratio in 1961 Census came to 229. Since two bullocks are required to work one plough the above ratios indicate excess of work animals in relation to ploughs.

Milk Cows and Buffaloes in Relation to Human Population

The number of milk cows and cow-buffaloes over three years kept for breeding or milk production per 1,000 persons worked out to 303 and 390, respectively, as against the corresponding number of 220 and 290, respectively, for the State as a whole during the year 1961. In this respect Damoh enjoys quite an enviable position in comparison to most of the districts of Madhya Pradesh.

Grazing Facilities

Sufficient grazing land and improved feeding are the most essential requirements of successful maintenance of healthy livestock. But the conditions obtaining here are not satisfactory. Majority of the livestock are under-fed and ill-fed. They neither get the proper type of feed nor in adequate quantities.

Yet, Damoh District leads all the districts of this State as regards the acreage devoted to the production of fodder crops. This average came to 36,804 acres during the quinquennium 1956-57 to 1960-61 (36,389 acres during the preceding quinquennium 1950-51 to 1954-55). i.e., six per cent of the total cropped area of the District. It means that 72 acres of fodder area were available for 1,000 bovine population and 63 acres per 1,000 animal population. The average for the State was only four in both the cases.

Land classed as 'culturable waste' and 'permanent pastures and grazing lands' and 'forest areas open for grazing' are utilized for cattle grazing. The average of such grazing area for the quinquennium 1956-57 to 1960-61 was 6.80 lakh acres, i.e., 37.6 per cent of the total geographical area of the District. Thus, 1.33 acres were available for grazing per head of bovine population and 1.16 acres per head of livestock population.

As regards availability of feed, Wheat Zone of the State, which amongst others embraces Damoh District, enjoys an intermediate position, inferior to Rice Zone and Rice-Wheat Zone, but superior to Wheat-Jowar Zone and Jowar-Cotton Zone. It is better than even the average for the State.

Table No. IV-8

Availability of Cattle Feed

Feed	Availability Per Cattle Unit Per Day	
	Wheat Zone	State Average
(i) Roughage		
(a) Grazing	6.4	3.9

(b) Agricultural bye-products		2.5	2.9
	Total	8.9	6.8
(ii) Concentrates (in ozs.)		2.80	2.62

The main sources of cattle feed are green fodder crops, dry fodder, concentrates and grazing lands. Livestock are also grazed in the fields after the crops are harvested. Pastures provide the cheapest and the most economical form of feed for livestock. But with the exception of forests, grazing lands have little semblance with any sort of conservation, protection or regulation. Consequently, they have declined both in size and quality of grazing due to overgrazing and lack of management. In village communal lands grazing is free to the extent laid down in the village administration papers. For extra village grazing, grazing dues are levied at moderate rates. Culturable waste lands yield some grass, though of poor quality. Grazing facilities in the forest areas are regulated by the Forest Department by the issue of passes at moderate rates. Young stock below one year is not charged any fee.

Both green and dry grass and fodder are used as animal feed. The green grass and fodder are available in rainy season and to some extent in winter also. Dry fodder or grass is used in the rest of the season. *Jowar karbi*, rice-polishings, paddy straw and bran of wheat and gram are the main types of dry fodder. Wheat straw forms a considerable proportion of roughages for livestock. During the rainy and winter months, leguminous crops like *teora*, green *jowar* plants and grasses like berseem are grown and fed to the cattle as green fodder.

The concentrated feed mostly consists of linseed cakes and by-products of cereals and pulses. These concentrates are fed to the livestock either during the working season or milking period. They are more widely used in urban areas than in rural areas. Working bullocks and milch cows/buffaloes are also stall-fed. A scheme of construction of mangers is also in operation in the District since 1953-54 to popularize this system of feeding. Some of the dairy owners have also taken up readymade balanced feed for cattle which is now being manufactured in the country.

The indigenous grasses that grow in the District are known by the names of *guner*, *muchel*, *kaet*, *dub*, etc. Since the year 1953-54, attempts are being made to popularize green forage crops—legumes and grasses like lucerne, berseem, para, murbal, napier, giant napier, and G.73, which besides being nutritious provide luxuriant crops. Measures, which commenced in 1953-54, with a view to securing their extension and proper utilization comprise, supply of grass seed cuttings and roots, construction of silo-pits and supply of chaff cutters. Fodder demonstration plots are also laid out on cultivators' fields for the propagation of improved grasses. But the progress has been tardy, as in 1966 only 322 acres were covered by improved grasses.

Livestock Diseases

Due to inadequate feeding and as a result of unhealthy and poor housing conditions, the power of resistance of livestock is low and the infectious diseases are common among them. Rinderpest, haemorrhagic septicaemia, black-quarter, anthrax, surra, liver-fluke and foot-and-mouth are the main diseases which affect the livestock. Rinderpest is locally known as *mata* or *mahamari*. Haemorrhagic septicaemia or malignant sore throat is locally known as *ghat-runda* or *ghatsarp*. Gross anthrax which attacks the tongue and interior of the mouth and throat, is locally termed as *chhad*. The blood vessel of the tongue becomes congested and swells up especially at the base. Foot-and-mouth disease is a contagious fever accompanied by vesicular eruption in the mouth, chiefly on the tongue and on the feet at the junction of the skin with the hoofs and also between the hoofs. This is locally known as *khuri, rokti* or *baikhra*. People call surra by the name of *bhanra* and liver-fluke as *gonch*. Where facilities of treatment at a veterinary dispensary are not available people become helpless whenever any livestock disease appears. In the case of rinderpest they would invoke the blessings of the village deity for the protection of their cattle. In other cases, they would fire the affected part with a piece of hot iron.

The Table given below shows the incidence of these livestock diseases in recent years:

Table No. IV-9

Incidence of Diseases

Years	Outbreaks			
	Rinderpest	H.S.	Black-quarter	Anthrax
1960-61	7	3	—	—
1961-62	—	1	8	16
1962-63	—	17	4	1
1963-64	—	3	1	—
1964-65	—	3	—	3
1965-66	8	9	3	8
1966-67	2	9	3	13
1967-68	1	3	1	6
1968-69	—	4	3	1
1969-70	—	3	1	1

The Table indicates the results achieved through the curative and preventive measures, against the virulence of these diseases, started as part of livestock development activities of the Five Year Plans.

Measures for the control of rinderpest or cattle plague, the most destructive virus disease of the clever-footed animals, were started in 1960-61, under the Rinderpest Eradication Programme. About 70 per cent of the total cattle population was immunised by the special staff engaged under the scheme. Follow-up work is conducted every year regularly by the normal staff of the Veterinary Department. No outbreak of this disease has been reported since then.

For controlling the protozoan infection of the ruminants a certain amount of medicines is provided to the District. In the event of a report of such an outbreak from any village, veterinary aid is immediately rendered to the affected areas so as to contain and eliminate the same.

The first veterinary hospital was established in the District at Damoh as early as in 1903, but for little over half a century it remained the only institution of its kind in the District. The other hospital was started at Batiagarh on the 1st April, 1954. In later years veterinary hospitals were established at Hatta (9.10.1957), Patharia (9.10.1957), Jabera (20.2.1960) and Tendukheda (1.4.1962). The hospital at Patera is under construction.

With a view to catering to the needs of interior and remote areas outlying veterinary dispensaries were set up in the District. Sitanagar was the first place to have such a dispensary on the 1st September 1957. Thereafter they came into being in quick succession at Hindoria (8.3.1959), Kusmi (3.9.1960), Bairagarh (7.1.1962), Kumhari (14.3.1962), Fatehpur (1.4.1962), Harrai (1.4.62) Patna Mangarh (May, 1962), Madiadoh (20.10.1962), Rajpura (28.11.1962), and Balakot (March, 1963).

In case of outbreak of a disease, timely aid becomes a matter of prime importance. Moreover, it may be difficult for the nearest hospital or dispensary to organise such aid effectively. Herein lies the utility of mobile veterinary units which started functioning from the 1st January, 1965. One Veterinary Assistant Surgeon and two Stockmen are attached to this unit.

The disease control measures adopted in the District have been quite effective and the cattle owners are now convinced of the efficacy of prophylactic vaccinations against various cattle diseases.

Measures to Improve Quality of Breed

Such measures embrace manifold activities, namely, control of diseases, adequate feeding and upgrading of stock. The first two measures have already been described. The work of dissemination of improved germ-plasm of better breeds of cattle, sheep, goats and poultry was taken up on a large scale since the establishment of Development Blocks in 1952-53.

It has been decided to upgrade the local non-descript cattle by introducing *Malvi* bulls for grading up draught animals and *Murrah* buffalo-bulls and *Hariana*

cow-bulls for upgrading buffalo stock and cattle stock for augmenting milk production.

Artificial insemination units have been established at Damoh, Jabera and Patharia. Supplies of semen are received from the Artificial Insemination Centre, Ratona, (District Sagar).

However, artificial insemination has not as yet caught the imagination of the cattle owners. This method presents the difficulties of transport, etc. Hence facilities of natural service are also available at outlying dispensaries and cattle-breeding extension units, located at Tendukheda, Hatta, Bairagarh, Hindoria and Kusmi.

With a view to improving the local stock of sheep and goats, rams of Rajasthani breed and goats of Jamunapari breed were introduced in 1958-59. But they did not thrive well in the local agro-climatic conditions. As such, the experiment has not succeeded.

Actual improvement in the quality of breeds is not visible due to want of nutritional environment required for expression of the genetical potentiality of the upgraded stock. However, with the improvement in grazing and fodder situation, the full impact of these measures will be felt.

Other measures intended for the improvement of cattle wealth include the establishment of Cattle Breeding Extension Units at Tendukheda (1.4.1962), Kusmi (1.4.1963), Hatta (15.5.1963), Hindoria (20.12.1965) Bairagarh (21.12. 965) and Batiagarh (28.1.1966), and Key Village Centres at Jabera, Batiagarh and Patharia.

Gosadan

There is one *gosadan* in the District at Batiagarh. The object behind this scheme was to send such cows and bullocks to the *gosadan* which on account of old age or some infirmity lose their usefulness and become a liability to the owners. Such animals are collected and transported to the *gosadan* where they are taken care of by the Veterinary Department. After their death, skins and bones are collected and auctioned, which yields a little revenue that partially meets the expenditure on the *gosadan*.

Poultry Farming

According to the enumeration of 1961, poultry number of the District stood at 16,625 and consisted almost wholly of fowls, i.e., 16,551. Poultry registered an increase of 41 per cent in numbers over 1956. A negligible percentage, i.e., 0.6 of the fowls was found to be improved.

Poultry industry is usually run on a very small scale. In rural areas birds are kept in the open yards. They feed mostly on the household refuse and kitchen waste. Occasionally scratches in the form of paddy and *jowar* are also fed to them.

During night they are kept under a mud-built shed, kitchen house or covered under basket.

Since the inception of the Community Development Programme poultry industry has seen new light and efforts have continuously been made to re-establish the industry along sound and scientific lines by introducing new, improved varieties of birds, starting preventive measures against various poultry diseases, extending assistance to private poultry farmers and adopting extension measures.

Improved birds which were exclusively found with the Christian and Muslim poultry keepers of Damoh Town for the last two decades have since penetrated the rural areas and now their pure flocks can be seen in villages also. People have realised that the improved birds proved economic in the long run. Incidentally, it may be mentioned that White-Leghorn and Rhode-Island Red breeds of birds have been found suitable for propagation in the District. These birds give 120 eggs per year as against indigenous birds whose egg-laying capacity is just half.

Birds suffer from a number of maladies. Some of them are so contagious and fatal that large flocks succumb to them helplessly. With a view to safeguarding against this preventible mortality, prophylactic vaccinations were started against Ranikhet and fowlpox and were organised on a large scale since 1956. Hygienic and curative measures are taken against other diseases. These steps have considerably countered the hazards associated with this industry.

One District Poultry Unit was started at Damoh in 1962-63. It serves as the base for demonstration of poultry husbandry practices and supply of eggs (hatching and table) and improved birds to the breeders of the District. Back-yard Poultry units have also come into existence from the year 1952-53 and in 1966, 76 such units were functioning in the District.

Being a perishable and easily breakable commodity eggs pose a serious marketing problem including that of storage, transportation and handling. Thanks to increasing and persistent demand for eggs, no such problem has arisen in the District and all the eggs are easily sold out locally.

A mention may be made of the various facilities that are extended to private poultry farmers. These consist of (i) supply of day-old chicks on 50 per cent subsidy, (ii) supply of breeding equipment on 50 per cent subsidy, (iii) grant for improvement of poultry houses, (iv) loans upto a maximum of Rs. 5,000, (v) supply of hatching eggs on subsidy basis and, (vi) supply and exchange of *deshi* cocks with improved birds.

Fisheries

Where there is water there is fish or possibility of fish. An acre of water is known to be more productive than an acre of land.

The fish fauna met with in the rivers of the District consists of *Mahaseer*, *Cirrhina mrigala*, *Labeo rohita*, *Labeo calbasu*, various types of cat fishes and murrels, such as, *Ophiocephalus striatus marulius* and *punctatus* and local minor varieties. Introduced in 1952, *Labeo rohita*, *Catla catla* and *mrigala* have been recommended for culture in the District.

The practice of trapa-cum-fish culture is quite common in the District.

The earlier state of fishing industry of the District was disorganised, primitive and wasteful. Eversince its establishment in the District the Fishery Office has attempted to put this industry on sound footing.

Fisheries Department is demonstrating the utility of new types of implements namely, new and effective types of fishing crafts and tackles, so that the efficiency of fish catching may increase. The Department has suggested the use of nets made of garnyl in place of gill-nets and *mahajal*, which are commonly found in every fishing family. The new type of net has caught the imagination of the fisherfolk. Ice-packing of fish is being popularized to protect the fish against bacterial deterioration while in transit.

Financial and technical assistance is also placed at the disposal of the fishermen. But, for this, fishermen are encouraged to form co-operative societies. Loans are granted for the purchase of (i) nets and boats as also of material used in their construction, (ii) fish seed and, (iii) repair of tanks, etc. Loans are supported by a suitable provision for subsidy.

So far, two fishermen's co-operative societies have been organised in the District. The first was formed about a decade back, while the second came into existence in 1964. The Fisheries Department has provided these societies with fishing work, on royalty basis, in the Departmental tanks as well as in the irrigation tanks, which have been transferred to the Fisheries Department. The rates of royalty charged are Rs. 75, Rs. 60, and Rs. 40 per quintal for carps, local major and local minor fishes, respectively. Considering the rates prevailing in the market, these rates are quite low and this has been done deliberately to give sufficient margin of profit to the societies.

Below is given a list of tanks where pisciculture work is being done.

Table No. IV-10

Fisheries Development Tanks

Sl. No.	Name of Tank	Area (Acres)
1	2	3
	Departmental Tanks	
1.	Purena Tank	12
2.	Bela Tank	6

1	2	3
3.	Diwanji-ki-Talaiya	8
4.	Kidee-ki-Talaiya	1
	Irrigation Tanks	
5.	Mala Tank	1,080
6.	Jamnera Tank	160
7.	Jabera Tank	282
8.	Barpati Tank	218
9.	Garaghat Tank	575

An Intensive Pisciculture Scheme is being implemented in the District. When the nurseries and rearing ponds envisaged under the Scheme are constructed, it would be possible to raise fish seed in them. The same, then, will be stocked in the Departmental tanks and supplied to Gram Panchayats and private parties. Some research work on induced-breeding and seed-rearing also forms part of the same Scheme.

With the resuscitation of the indigenous fish industry, construction of new irrigation tanks and launching of the Scheme mentioned in the foregoing para, the industry has a bright future.

Forestry

Forests play a vital role in the agricultural economy of a region. In fact, prosperity of agriculture is so much dependent upon well-conserved and well-preserved forests that successful agriculture is unthinkable in the absence of luxuriant forest growth. Forests maintain humidity of atmosphere, ensure sustained supply of water, provide timber from which agricultural implements and agriculturists' homes are made, supply grazing to agricultural livestock and make available leaves which are used as rich manure.

The economy of the District is greatly influenced in many other ways also. The local demand of small timber, fuel and various other forest products, which is quite heavy, is met with from the forests of the District. Among the industries subsisting on forestry, the principal one is that of *bidi* making. Forests open avenues of employment for a large number of people both in skilled and unskilled jobs. They make a sizeable contribution to the financial resources of the State.

According to Land Records statistics forests occupied 6.68 lakh acres in 1964-65, which comprised forests administered by Forest Department and Revenue Department. Thus, forests accounted for 37 per cent of the total area of the District.

The underlying rock throughout the Damoh Forest Division is Upper Vindhyan Sandstone. The soil types, configuration and climate do not show appre-

ciable variations, so all the forests of the District belong to the Dry Tropical Deciduous community. But the natural variations in depth of the soil, aspect and degree of slope, coupled with past history, incidence of grazing and felling have introduced variations in height, growth, density in stocking and proportion of species present in any one place.

The Protected Forests measuring 415.04 sq. miles though broadly conforming to the same description are comparatively very much inferior due to past mis-management and uncontrolled interference. These forests were transferred to the State only after the abolition of the proprietary rights in land, and having been exposed to unrestricted human depredations, excessive grazing and fire hazards the quality and density of the forests have deteriorated to a very great extent. They will need considerable nursing through intensive management and protection to build up the soil and crop and to erase the scars of the past spoliation.

The valuable forests of the District are met with in Taradehi, Tendukhera and Singrampur Ranges. They are mostly confined to the areas containing alluvial soil stretching on both the banks of the Bearma, the Hiran, the Godhar, the Gourauja, the Sonar, the Banana and the Bamnar rivers.

Forest Produce

The important timber species found in the District are teak, *saj*, *haldu*, *bija*, *dhaora*, *bhirra* and *tendu*. Other forest produce which is obtained in some significant quantities comprise, *khair tendu* leaves, *kullu* gum, lac and other gums, etc. The forest wealth of the District suffices to meet the needs of the region. It has, however, an export surplus in timber, charcoal, *tendu* leaves, catechu, *kullu* gum, etc. These commodities find their way to Jabalpur, Katni, Delhi, Kanpur and Bombay.

Tendu leaves form the basic raw material for *bidi* manufacturing industry of the District as well as of other regions.

The principal forest produce along with their approximate annual yield are indicated in the subjoined statement.

Table No. IV-11

Volume & Value of Forest Produce

Name of Forest Produce	Approximate Annual Yield	Value (in Rs.)
Timber	1,00,000 Cft.	6,00,000
Fuel	2,00,000 Cft.	4,00,000
Grass	12,000 Clds.	18,000
Gums	90 Mds.	7,000
Tendu Leaves	40,000 St. Bags	2,00,000
Khair	—	30,000

Income and Expenditure

As already stated, forests contribute a major share of profit by way of revenue. The Table below will show the position.

Table No. IV-12

Forest—Revenue & Expenditure

(In '000 Rs.)

Year	Total Gross Revenue	Total Expenditure	Net Surplus
1960-61	12,68	460	8,08
1961-62	14,01	5,89	8,12
1962-63	14,26	5,44	8,82
1963-64	11,99	5,29	6,70
1964-65	13,10	5,72	7,38
1965-66	26,24	8,13	18,11
1966-67	24,19	8,59	15,60
1967-68	27,33	8,50	18,83
1968-69	39,73	8,73	31,00
1969-70	31,36	10,96	20,40

The sudden spurt in revenues in 1965-66 is attributable to the nationalisation of trade in *tendu* leaves. The forests, thus yield sizeable annual revenue to the state.

Exploitation

The system of exploitation of forest produce prevalent in the District is briefly narrated here. In the main coupes thinning and other cultural operations are done departmentally, and then the felled produce is sold to contractors. *Khair* leases are sold by auctioning standing *khair* trees. *Kullu* gum is auctioned and contractors tap the gum from standing trees. *Tendu* leaves are sold by inviting tenders from purchasers for various units. These are collected by Government appointed agents and delivered to the purchasers. Dry wood, bamboos, and other minor forest produce are disposed of usually on forest produce passes obtained from licence vendors. The forest produce is removed by contractors or purchasers mostly by diesel trucks, bullock-carts or head-loads.

Nistar

With a view to meeting the *nistar* demands of the local population, 33 depots have been opened all over the District where generally timber in the shape of poles is collected. The quantity of timber stocked in a particular depot is according to the requirements of the locality. This timber is sold to the agriculturist at concessional rates. Besides, a few coupes of *ad hoc* felling series in the Protected Forests are also

available for *nistar*. The *nistaries* can cut and remove fixed number of poles below 24 inches under the supervision of Forest staff.

Some commercial depots have also been set up to cater to the local demand of non-agriculturists and others. Farmers can also obtain supplies from these depots over and above that fixed at concessional rates.

Plantation;

The experiment of raising plantations has not been quite successful. However, plantations of teak and eucalyptus hybrid are being raised every year in the Forest Division. Eucalyptus hybrid is an exotic species and a fast growing one. Attempts are being made to grow it with a view to replenishing the forest stock. This will also supply small timber and raw material for paper-pulp industry. Plantations were raised over an area of 468 acres during the 10 year period from 1956-57 to 1965-66. They consisted almost wholly of teak plantations. Eucalyptus was taken up in 1965-66 and in 37 acres only.

Uncontrolled illicit felling by human agency has produced considerable degrading effect on the general condition of the forests. A regular working scheme is being framed for the rehabilitation of degraded forests. Preliminary work for systematizing the working and protection of these forests has already been undertaken.

Famines

Damoh District is one of the scarcity districts of the State which has frequently been dogged by drought. The tract is mostly hilly with poor quality of soil, and thus subject to all the calamities brought about by a badly distributed monsoon. Failure of the crops resulted more frequently from untimely rain in the winter months, sometimes accompanied by frost and hail and effecting the destruction of the spring crops, than from shortness of the regular monsoon current. The months of September and October constitute the critical period of both *kharif* and *rabi* crops. The success of both the crops depends upon the timely rain of these months, but it is precisely in these months that the rainfall is most wayward and fitful. The average rainfall of Damoh is about 48 inches. It is admitted, however, that even a minimum rain of 35 inches, well-distributed over the year, would bring the crops to successful maturity.

A graphic description of the famines that have brought the District to unmitigated grief and suffering till the turn of this century, is contained in the old Gazetteer.[1] However, the main events may be briefly recapitulated here.

Early Famines

Acute famine prevailed in the District in 1818-19, and wheat sold at four seers to the rupee. In 1854-55, rust destoyed the wheat crop of the District. This calamity was, till 1894 spoken as "The Great Blight." During the next 40 years, only one great calamity is recorded, the failure of the crops in 1868-69, the year of the Great Bundelkhand

1. *Damoh District Gazetteer*, pp. 146-154.

Famine, in the northern portion of the District. The next bad famine was that of 1886, and then after a brief respite there followed a cycle of bad years from 1893 to 1899 culminating in the great famine of 1899-1900.

The present century opened with a happy note of good crops. Then came the year 1907 to remind of the misfortunes of the previous century. In 1907 the rains were late and inadequate in June and July and again in September and October and all the crops alike were overtaken by withering. It was recorded that the failure of the crops was 'unparalleled in the history of the district.' Over the greater part of the rice area there was no crop worth cutting, the fields were swept with brooms and the rubbish thus collected was sifted for the little grain it might hold.

Famine of 1907

An early rainfall, followed by too long a break caused withering of the crops in 1911.

The serious distress of 1913-14, due to partial failure and early cessation of the monsoon also brought the District to grief. Small irrigation works failed.

The District was again in the grip of a severe famine in 1918-19. This was caused by the abrupt cessation of the rains in September, 1918. The early monsoon was on the whole well distributed though a long break after the first week of July delayed *kharif* sowing and the transplantation of rice.

Famine of 1918-19

The prospects of the *kharif* crop till the second week of September were fairly bright; but the monsoon disappeared and there was practically no rain until almost the end of November. The *kharif* crops were badly hit. Although the crop failure was widespread and severe the distress was aggravated by two important factors, first, large exports of grain in the previous years depleting the stocks and raising the prices to a height which would ordinarily be regarded as famine level; secondly the serious influenza epidemic during July-November, 1918, coinciding with the *kharif* harvesting and *rabi* sowing, took a very heavy toll of human lives.

Parts of Damoh District were again enveloped by famine in 1920-21. This was caused by the abrupt cessation of rains in the middle of September, 1920. The monsoon of 1920 broke somewhat late but the rainfall though light was well distributed, and at the end of July crop prospects appeared good. An opportune break then occurred and was followed by good showers in August except in few regions where practically no rain was received. Light rain continued to fall in the first week of September and was succeeded by moderately heavy showers in the second week. More rain was, however, urgently required. From this time onwards the monsoon withdrew and there was no rain till the latter half of January, 1921.

Famine of 1920-21

The result was a severe failure of the *kharif* crops. The prolonged drought coupled with excessive heat hardened the soil and gave rise to a marked shrinkage in the area sown with spring crops.

Again, in the beginning of 1929, prospects of the crops were bright and early cessation of relief operations, which were started during 1927-28 on account of severe damage by rust in wheat induced by heavy rainfall in cold weather, was anticipated. In the end of January, however, a wave of severe cold and frost caused serious damage to the crops in the District. Another calamity overtook the District in 1929-30 occasioned by feeble monsoon in early stages. Later it was too continuous and heavy to suit *kharif* crops. Abrupt cessation of the monsoon in September had a bad effect on the *rabi* crops of the District. A considerable area under *rabi* crops could not be sown at all.

Scarcities

In 1940-41 the late advent of monsoon and scanty rainfall in September and October caused severe crop failure in the District. Succour had to be provided by opening relief works though scarcity was not declared. *Rabi* crop was damaged in 1941-42 due to hail and rust on account of unseasonal winter showers.

The years 1946-47 and 1947-48 were uncommon. In these two years inspite of favourable late monsoon the crops failed because of serious damage done by rust and hailstorm. Relief to the cultivators was given as a result of partial falure of crops continuously from 1946-47. There was partial damage on a very restricted scale in the years 1948-49, 1949-50 and 1951-52. Paddy crop failed in 1950-51 because of failure of late monsoon. For the same reason there was some damage to crops on a restricted scale in Hatta Tahsil in 1952-53.

Famines of 1965-66 and 1966-67

Due to the late arrival of the monsoon, sporadic rains, long spell of dry weather and lack of rains in September, 1965, there was widespread failure of *kharif* and *rabi* crops. The total precipitation was only 51 per cent of the normal. Drought conditions brought scarcity of drinking water, food and fodder in their trail.

The widespread and severe famine that enveloped the District in 1965-66 and 1966-67 was of such wide dimensions that it surpassed all such calamities that had occurred in living memory. But for the unremitting efforts of the popular Government which strained every nerve to prevent emaciation, dislocation of population and suffering to the people and the cattle alike, the District would have been reduced to utter destitution and starvation.

Provision of gainful employment to the vulnerable groups of the rural population, namely, small farmers and agricultural labourers became imperative. To meet the challenge of the ghastly situation, the following relief measures were taken up immediately.

Table No. IV-13

Famines of 1965-66 *and* 1966-67—*Relief Measures*

Particulars of Works	1965-66		1966-67	
	Unit	Amount (Rs. in '000)	Unit	Amount (Upto 31-10-66) (Rs. in '000)
1. Construction of roads	290 miles	40,35	490 miles	93,92
2. Repairs and deepening of *nistar* tanks	97	2,16	157	18,61
3. Improvement of canals	—	—	27	
4. Repairs to *nistari*-cum irrigation tanks	—	—	13	
5. Reclamation of fallow land	134 acres	4	274 acres	5
6. Fire protection		2	—	—
7. Plantations		1	—	—
8. Bunding of nullahs	109	38	—	—
9. Cleaning and deepening of wells	10	2	166	40
10. Digging of *Jhirias*	118	3	38	1
		43,01		112,99

During the financial year 1966-67, not only work was continued on the incomplete works of the previous year, but new works were also started to give employment to increasing number of labourers who thronged the relief camps in search of work.

The works were started in May, 1965 The peak of employment was reached in May and June, 1965, when 46,634 labourers were working. At the end of the year, the number had gone down to 39,187. To ensure prompt payment to the labourers in the scarcity works 46 disbursing officers were appointed. With a view to making the foodgrains available to these labourers at reasonable prices, 50 fair price shops were set up in the interior villages. These shops were being run by Gram Panchayats and village co-operatives. Arrangements were generally made in such a way that payment of wages and distribution of foodgrains took place at the same time and place. Besides, the payments were made a day previous to, or on the day of the local market itself.

Wheat and wheat flour were distributed as gratuitous relief to the old and the infirm through the Gram Panchayats and Patels. As at the end of December, 1966, the number of persons in receipt of such relief was 2,654. Milk powder and peas were distributed at work-sites to the vulnerable sections of the society, namely, expectant and nursing mothers and children belonging to the age-group 0-14 years.

For saving the cattle wealth of the District, 13 cattle camps were set up and a forest area of 1,154 sq. miles was opened for grazing. The Forest Department took up the work of cutting grass and its storage Departmentally.

For preventing possible outbreak of epidemics amongst people and cattle prophylactic inoculations were arranged through the Civil Surgeon and Livestock Officer, respectively.

The gravity of the situation was enhanced on account of the failure of *kharif* crops in succession in 1966-67 due to inadequacy of rains and long spell of the drought. Working on the assumption that about a lakh people would seek employment during this scarcity, a comprehensive programme of work was prepared, as shown below.

Table No. IV-14

Famine of 1966-67—*Relief Programme*

(In '000 Rs.)

Programme of work	Amount Required			
	Unit	Upto 31-3-67	1-4-67 to 15-11-67	Total
I Continuation of existing scarcity works				
1. Construction of roads	490 miles	60,00	22,00	82,00
2. Repairs and deepening of *nistari* tanks	157	27,00	8,00	35,00
3. Improvement of canals	27	—	—	—
4. Repairs to *nistari*-cum-irrigation tanks	13	—	—	—
Total		87,00	30,00	117,00
II Opening of new scarcity works				
1. Reclamation of fallow land	4,000 acres	5,00	3,00	8,00
2. Bunding of nullahs	150	1,50	25	1,75
3. Conversion of step-wells	100	2,00	—	2,00
4. Deepening of existing wells	200	1,00	2,00	3,00
5. Construction of new wells	50	1,00	1,50	2,50
6. Repairs to existing *nistari*-cum-Irrigation tanks	90	2,50	27,50	30,00
7. Departmental irrigation works	10	1,75	8,25	10,00
8. Improvement to canal system	125 miles	4,75	1,25	6,00
9. Repairs to existing *nistari* tanks	82	3,00	5,00	8,00
Total		22,50	48,75	71,25
Grand Total		109,50	78,75	188,25

In addition, a number of productive works were also proposed for execution to enlarge the scope of employment to the famine-stricken people, the aim being to see that no person seeking employment was denied this facility. The works were to be as follows:

Table No. IV-15

Famine of 1966-67—*Relief Programme*

(In '000 Rs.)

Particulars of Work	Amount Required			
	Unit	Upto 31-3-67	1-4-67 to 15-11-67	Total
1. Contour bunding	31,375 acres	7,00	12,00	19,00
2. Field bunding	5,500 acres	1,50	3,00	4,50
3. Sinking of new irrigation wells	150	1,25	2,50	3,75
Total		9,75	17,50	27,25

Relief Measures—Past and Present

It is not clear that the pre-British, or even the earlier East India Company's Government in this country acknowledged the obligation to relieve famine at any cost and to strain every nerve to save life. In the local famine of 1837 in Upper India, Government adopted the view that its "main duty was to offer employment to those who could work but that the relief of the helpless and infirm......was the business of the charitable public". No relief seems to have been given till the famine of 1854. In the famine of 1868-69 it was declared for the first time that "the object of Government was to save every life."

In 1868, a small sum of Rs. 2,140 was raised by private subscriptions for the relief of the destitute, and the Government also contributed a like amount. Nothing further seems to have been done until July, 1869 when a relief work was opened on Sagar-Damoh road. Though in view of the magnitude of the distress that engulfed the country this relief hardly touched the fringe of the problem, yet it did mark the beginning of a new policy briefly outlined above.

Since then a sense of obligation on the part of the Government to give relief has developed and has been more and more fully acted upon. The policy remains to save every life, but in course of time this policy has been more liberally interpreted. Now Government recognises that a secondary but none the less essential object of State intervention is to prevent physical deterioration and dispiritedness among the people and place them in a position to resume their ordinary pursuits with advantage to themselves and the State on the advent of better times. At the

same time, it has also been stressed that the relief measures must never be taken on such a lavish scale as to check the growth of thrift and self-reliance among the people or to impair the moral obligation of mutual assistance.

In giving effect to this policy, Government in recent years has placed more and more reliance on works and less on gratuitous relief. Work is provided within a reasonable distance of their homes for all able-bodied persons and practically only those unable through infirmity to work are given gratuitous relief. The relief measures adopted during the course of the current famine clearly reflect this policy.

State Assistance to Agriculture

Provision for assistance to the needy agriculturists exists in the Land Improvement Loans Act, 1883 and Agriculturists' Loans Act, 1884. Loans under the Agriculturists' Loans Act are intended primarily to relieve distress and to assist the cultivators in financing their agricultural operations. Loans under the Land Improvement Loans Act are intended to encourage the cultivators to undertake land improvement measures.

Loans are granted for short or medium term according to the purpose of the loan. Short-term loans are granted for maintenance, seed, weeding and manure, and are repayable ordinarily within a year. Medium term loans are granted for making improvement on land or for the purchase of bullocks or agricultural machinery or construction of bunds and are repayable within five to seven years.

Transactions under the Agriculturists' Loans Act have been small except in the years of famine. Perhaps the most important function fulfilled by this Act was the mitigation of the worst features of seasonal calamity by providing the people with money for their immediate agricultural necessities at a time when local credit contracted to the narrowest limits.

The Second World War and Bengal Famine (1943-44) underlined the imperative need for increasing food production. From the year 1943-44 new schemes under Grow More Food were brought into force and the cultivators were encouraged to produce more food with the help of additional funds made available to them through the Collectors at concessional rates of interest. Besides, provision was also made for subsidy upto 1/5 of the loan granted provided it was utilised for the purpose for which it was advanced within the prescribed time-limit.

Failures of crops necessitate the grant of relief of some special nature in order to remove distress of the farming classes. During such periods besides the grant of large amounts as *taccavi* loans, remissions and suspensions in *taccavi* loans are also sanctioned by the State Government.

Statements in Appendix show the amount of *taccavi* loans made available to cultivators.

CHAPTER V

INDUSTRIES

Population Dependent on Industries

Damoh District formed part of Sagar district from 1931 to 1956. With the reorganization of the State on 1st November, 1956, Damoh regained its status as a separate administrative unit. Damoh is one of the industrially backward districts of the State. The total population of the District at the 1961 Census was 438,343. Out of the total population 206,876 were 'workers' forming 47.19 per cent of the whole population. While 67.4 per cent of the total 'workers' were engaged in agriculture, the population of workers in industries, namely, household and manufacturing other than household industries formed 14.6 per cent of the total 'workers'. In absolute figures the number of 'workers' in industries was 30,317 out of the total of 206,876. The percentage of 'workers' in household industry was 13.7 while that in manufacturing other than household was 0.9.

Household industry in the District is next in importance to agriculture in respect of the employment of 'workers'. This swelling of the numbers in household industry is mainly on account of the bidi-making industry, which is carried on in households. Two-thirds of the 'workers' in this category were being absorbed in bidi-making. There is no way of knowing as to what percentage of 'workers' in bidi-making at household level have taken to it as the principal source of livelihood. Other than at household level, i.e., bidi-making on factory-basis employed about one-third of the 'workers' in that category.

Industries connected with the manufacture of food stuff absorbed 15.3 per cent of the 'workers'. Industries in this category were flour mills, oil mills and *dal* mills. These are all agriculture-based industries working mostly on a seasonal basis.

Next in respect of the quantum of employment were the group of industries manufacturing wood and wooden products, such as sawing of timber, making of structural wooden goods like panes, doors, etc., and articles from bamboo or cork. This group provided employment to 9.5 per cent of the 'workers' in this category.

Because of technical difficulties in complying with the definition of household industry, the category of manufacturing other than household industry also included tailoring, gold and silversmithy, repairs of cycles and rickshaws, leather articles, clay products, etc. As stated above even inclusive of all these industries

the percentage of 'workers' in manufacturing other than household formed only 0.9 per cent of the total 'workers.'

The above mentioned facts and figures behind the 14.6 per cent of 'workers' engaged in different industries highlight the industrial backwardness of the District.

Old Time Industries

Weaving and Dyeing

As per earlier Gazetteer (1909) of the District, industries like weaving of cotton cloth and dyeing, making of gold, silver and bell-metal utensils, preparation of wooden toys, baskets, fans, mats and brooms existed in the District. Even at the beginning of the present century the weaving industry was facing a crisis of survival because of the mill-spun thread that was solely used for cloth-making. Only *newar* tape, *dorias* or cart covers, mats and carpets were made from home-spun thread. The dyeing industry was also in no way prosperous as indigenous dyes were being supplanted by imported ones. Coarse woollen blankets were made by the shepherds tending goats and sheep.

Ornaments and Metal Industry

Workers in gold and silver ornaments, namely, *sonars* were mostly concentrated at Damoh, Patharia and Hatta. Ornaments made were generally heavy and not of any distinctive workmanship. Copper vessels were usually imported from Kanpur. Besides eating and drinking vessels, chains, rings, *chunaitis* (small boxes for keeping lime), tooth-picks, toys and images were made of brass, which was usually imported in sheets. Bell-metal was, however, manufactured locally. Hatta was an important centre for the manufacture of eating and drinking vessels of bell-metal and where workmen adept in imparting a peculiar polish to the metal were concentrated. Lohars at Jabera used to prepare knives, hatchets and nut-cutters. Kunderas used to make wooden toys, pipes and bedsteads and lacquer them. Bamboo workers made all kinds of baskets and fans. Mats and brooms of palm leaves and brushes out of a kind of grass were also prepared.

Potteries, Bangles, Leather goods

The pottery of Damoh, having some reputation, was made out of the smooth and malleable clay found at Damoh. Ordinary earthen vessels, lamps, water-jugs as well as pipe-bowls were the products of the pottery industry. Pipe-bowls were made with clay brought from Betul. Glass bangles were made at Damoh, Hindoria and Patera in the District. Glass was imported from Kanpur. Lac bangles were made by Lakheras in Damoh, Patharia and other places from a mixture of lac and earth. Necklaces were also made of lac. In leather goods industry, the manufacture of Bundelkhandi shoes, which were worn generally, and ornamental shoes for marriages engaged a large number of leather workers. Country paper was made out of hemp at Panchamnagar in the District. The paper was used for banker's account books.

Some of these industries are even now running in the District and are being organized on a co-operative basis.

Power

A power generating station was established at Damoh in 1951 with an installed capacity of 225 K.W. In 1962, the installed capacity was raised to 260 K.W. Segregation of demand for electricity for different uses from 1951 onwards was as under:

Table No. V-1
Consumption of Electricity

(In K. W. Hrs)

Year	Domestic	Commercial	Industrial
1951	64,548	51,564	41,028
1952	76,572	69,924	95,568
1953	83,436	74,376	120,264
1954	96,474	88,098	51,924
1955	108,456	98,096	95,420
1956	92,460	234,280	150,828
1957	77,504	268,800	204,556
1958	94,920	260,868	238,376
1959	116,024	403,436	200,392
1960	124,260	427,520	256,468
1961	138,304	456,088	330,668
1962	183,688	558,968	401,604

Source: Collector, Damoh.

By the end of the Third Five Year Plan period 15 places were electrified in the District. Upto 1971-72, the number of places electrified in the District was 157. Consumption of electricity for different uses from 1963 to 1970 was—

(In K. W. Hrs)

Year	Domestic	Commercial	Industrial
1963	1,85,927	3,56,382	6,29,583
1964	2,07,410	3,92,495	6,04,362
1965	2,30,222	4,14,856	6,07,029
1966	2,53,030	3,83,786	5,85,893
1967	2,80,994	4,30,716	6,81,196
1968	3,62,521	4,82 986	7,17,445
1969	4,66,350	5,42,773	7,87,593
1970	5,27,773	5,29,292	7,42,205

Source: Collector, Damoh.

Mines and Manufactures

Minerals

The District has no mineral resources of any importance except reserves of building materials including sandstone, limestone, basalt and flagstone. Lithographic stone has been found in Hatta Tahsil in the Sonar river, but economic value of the reserves was supposed to be doubtful. The District, however, has resources for the manufacture of cement in the vicinity of village Patharia on Damoh-Sagar railway line.

Large and Small-Scale Industries

The District has no resources for large scale manufacturing industries of any kind. Whatever factory industries exist are those based on agricultural and forest produce, working on a small scale. The factories registered under the Factories Act, 1948 were six bidi factories and two oil mills (as in 1958). In 1959, the number of registered bidi-factories remained the same as in the previous year, but there was an addition of one more factory under the oil-milling industry. One *dal* mill was also registered under the Factories Act but this was reported closed during the year. The total number of registered factories in 1960 was 11. Out of these seven were bidi factories, employing on an average 256 workers daily, three oil mills, employing 77 workers daily and one dal mill, which was reported not working during the year.

Factories Registered under the Factories Act

During the period of five years from 1960 to 1965 no new industries were started in the District. The number of factories, however, registered an increase of 6 in 1965 making a total of 17 registered factories under the Factories Act, 1948 . The increase in the factories was shared between bidi and oil-milling industries. Bidi factories increased to 12 from 7 in 1960, while only one oil mill more was added to the list, making a total of four oil mills. In 1965 the 12 bidi factories employed on an average over 266 workers daily. Average daily employment in four oil mills was a little over 100 workers. The *dal* mill which was under the management of a private party upto 1960 and remained closed, was placed under a co-operative management.

Unregistered Industries

In 1968, the number of factories registered under the Factories Act, 1948 was 16. This number included 12 bidi factories, 3 oil mills and one *dal* mill unit under co-operative management. Thus the position of factory industries in the District indicates a total absence of any industrial development over a period of one complete decade. However, there were other industries in the District, having no factories registered under the Factories Act, 1948. In 1963 the position regarding such industries was as under.

Soap Making
Saw Mills

There were four units in Soap making industry in the District, all the four being located at Damoh proper. These units manufactured washing-soap of inferior quality, marketing their products in the rural areas of the District. They provided employment to about 20 workers daily. As on 31st March, 1971, there were three washing soap units employing 13 workers. There were five saw-milling units, all located at Damoh, providing employment to 43 workers daily.

Sheet and Non-Ferrous Metal Industry
Printing Presses

There were six units in this industry, which provided employment to 30 persons. The investment in this industry was estimated at Rs. 40,650 as working capital and Rs. 19,550 as fixed capital. This industry throughout the District engaged about 75 persons and was located at Damoh, Hindoriya, Patera and Hatta. There were four printing presses, all located at Damoh, which provided employment to about 15 persons.

Pharmaceuticals
Agricultural Implements

One *ayurvedic* medicine manufacturing unit was working at Damoh under individual proprietorship. Fixed capital investment in this unit was Rs. 2,500 and working capital Rs. 18,000. Manufacture of improved agricultural implements was being carried on in a unit located at Damoh, which had a fixed capital investment of Rs. 90,000 and working capital of Rs. 4,000. As on 31st March, 1971, there were 20 units manufacturing agricultural implements, employing 49 workers.

Cottage Industries and Industrial Co-operative

Taking the household industry of 1961 Census classification as a cottage industry the Census data give the following proportions of 'workers' in some of the major and minor groups of industries in the household category.

Table No. V-2

Household Industries

S. No.	Major and Minor Group of Industry	Description	Proportion to total workers in household industry
1	2	3	4
1.	220	Manufacture of bidi	65.3
2.	23	Textile cotton	1.8
3.	287	Production of edible oils	1.3
4.	28	Manufacture of wood and wooden products	10.9
5.	282	Manufacture of structural wooden goods such as beam posts, doors, windows	2.0
6.	288	Manufacture of materials from cork	8.0

1	2	3	4
		bamboo, cane, leaves and other allied products	
7.	31	Leather and leather products	3.6
8.	311	Manufacture of shoes and other leather footwear	2.9
9.	340	Manufacture of structural clay products such as bricks, tiles, etc.	1.7
10.	350	Manufacture of earthenware and earthen pottery	2.8
11.	36	Basic metals and their products	3.0
12.	369	Manufacture of sundry hardware such as G. I. pipe, wire, nut, bolt, screw buckets	2.6
13.	393	Manufacture of jewellery, silver wares and wares using gold and other precious metals	2.2

The proportion of 'workers' in different household industries as stated above indicates that as in the sphere of factory industries so also in the household or cottage industrial activities, bidi-making was providing the highest employment. Next to bidi-making comes the manufacture of wood and wooden products. The manufacture of products from bamboo, cane, leaves, etc., follows next in order of importance. All these industries are based on the forest produce. The household cotton textile industry employed only 1.8 per cent of the total workers in this class.

Industrial Cooperatives

Because of the labour intensive character of the household cottage industries the Government decided to help the development of different industries by organizing them on a co-operative basis. There were thus a total number of 32 industrial co-operatives in the District in 1965.

Weaving

In the sphere of cotton textile, there was only one society in the District, namely, Damoh Weavers Co-operative Society, Damoh. The Society had 37 members. There were 102 handlooms registered in the District in 1963. Cotton printing is a household industry, the principal dyeing centre being village Bansa and its printed clothes are well-known locally. The number of *Telghani* Societies was three—2 at Damoh and 1 at Patharia. All these three societies had 57 members. There was also one rice and *dal* manufacturing co-operative society at Bandakpur in Damoh Tahsil.

The highest number of co-operatives was in the leather goods industry, i.e., 20 in the District. Only one of these was at Damoh proper while 19 others

Leather goods
Bamboo works
Manufacture of Utensils

were spread all over the District. Total membership of all these societies was 432. There were five societies of bamboo and cane workers, one of which was at Damoh. The membership of these societies was 68. The workers engaged in the manufacture of brass vessels were organized in two co-operatives, one at Hatta and the other at Patera in the District. There were 62 members in these societies. There were two societies of metal workers, with a membership of 82. Both were located at Damoh.

Bricks, Tiles

There were four societies of bricks and tile makers located at Patharia, Hirdepur, Khojakhedi and Damoh with a membership of 107. Out of the two other industrial societies one was carrying on the manufacture of soap with a membership consisting of workers in precious metals, namely, Sonars, while the other was designated as women's industrial society. Both the societies were located at Damoh and had a total membership of 100.

The position of industrial co-operatives in the District was as under:

Table No. V-3

Industrial Cooperatives

Year	No. of Societies	No. of Members	Total Share Capital (Rs.)	Total Working Capital (Rs.)
1955-56	3	82	1,500	2,000
1960-61	24	644	40,935	40,900
1967-68	24	735	38,632	1,30,604
1968-69	21	664	34,276	95,336
1969-70	11	416	21,864	54,896

Source: Assistant Registrar, Cooperative Societies, Damoh.

Industrial Potential

On the basis of the estimated availability of about 1,410 lakh tons of limestone in the region around Patharia and 77 lakh tons in the region around Narsingarh, a cement manufacturing unit could be established in the District. Water from the Sonar and the Kopra rivers could be utilized in the manufacture of cement. As the limestone deposits occur in the area about four miles from Patharia railway station, adequate transport facilities are also available. A license has been issued under the Industries (Development and Regulation) Act, 1951 in favour of Birla Jute Co., for the establishment of a cement manufacturing unit in the District. Keeping in view the predominance of agriculture in the District,

a fertilizer manufacturing unit can also be established. On the basis of availability of paddy husk and grass, a straw-board manufacturing unit can be established as large quantities of saw dust is available from saw mills in the District. A unit for the manufacture of leather shoes, especially for the Army, can be established on the basis of leather that is prepared in a number of tanning establishments spread all over the District. A solvent extraction plant and roller flour mill can also be established for utilization of by-products from the oil mills, and agricultural produce like wheat, etc. M/s Swadeshi Mill Co. Ltd., Bombay have been granted licence to set up a unit for Polyster Filament yarn. M/s Mysore Cement Ltd., New Delhi were granted licence to set up a cement manufacturing unit.

Industrial Arts

Engraving of bell-metal utensils was carried on extensively in olden times. Ornamental work on Bundelkhandi footwear was also done. But very little of these artistic pursuits remains, because of the transformations in fashion and tastes brought about by the changes in manufacturing techniques and economic condition of the people.

A provision of Rs. 3.65 lakhs was made towards industrial development of the District during Third Five Year Plan (1961-62).

Common Facilities Service Centre in Tranning, Damoh

At this centre common facilities for leather tanning were made available to the tanners at Damoh and neighbouring areas. In the Second Plan a total outlay of Rs. 1 lakh was contemplated against which the actual expenditure came to Rs. 0.75 lakhs. Most of the equipments were purchased and the construction of building was completed. The centre was started in 1962. In view of the large concentration of tanners in this area, the space provided in the tannery was found to be inadequate. It was, therefore, proposed to provide an additional building for finishing and drying purposes. A few additional machines which would further improve the quality of the finished product were also to be purchased. The total amount required was estimated at Rs. 1.72 lakhs. The value of finished leather produced was estimated at Rs. 0.60 lakh.

Rural Industrial Estate

Of the 26 districts which are to have Rural Industrial Estates this District is one, and it has one such Estate at Damoh, established during the Third Five Year Plan period. The cost was estimated at Rs. 1.53 lakhs. The Industrial Estate at Damoh is located on a plot of 6.9 acres and five sheds (15 blocks) were constructed. Provision of Rs. 0.40 lakhs was made for the construction of a Work Shed at Jabera in the District during the Third Five Year Plan period.

Labour and Employees' Organizations

Except for bidi-making there is no other industry in the District worth the name. This being so, in 1970, out of the five trade unions registered under the Trade Unions Act, 1926, three were of bidi industry and two of the Local Body

workers. The names of these unions with the years of their registration were.—

S. No.	Name of the Union	Year of registration
1.	Zila Bidi Kamgar Union, Municipal Building Naya Bazar, Damoh	18-10-1960
2.	Zila Bidi Checkar Union Sarafa Bazar, Damoh	18-10-1960
3.	Zila Zhilli Mazdoor Union Naya Bazar, Damoh	12-5-1961
4.	Nagar Parishad Karmachari Sangh, Damoh	3-6 1964
5.	Nagar Palika Karmachari Sangh, Hatta	

The Truck and Bus Owners' Association Damoh is the only organization of employers, registered on the 5th August, 1961.

Welfare of Industrial Labour

In view of the total absence of any large-scale organized industry in the District (trade unionism being confined to bidi-making industry) voluntary labour welfare activities on the part of employers and trade unions did not exist. Statutory labour welfare facilities available to industrial workers in the District under the Central and State enactments were as under.

The Act and the Scheme framed thereunder were made applicable to the oil-milling industry in the District. By 1965, three oil milling factories were covered under Employees' Provident Fund Scheme. The Act applies to all establishments employing 20 or more persons. The rate of contribution is 6 per cent of pay, i.e. basic wages plus dearness allowance including cash value of food concessions and retaining allowance (if any). The statutory rate of provident fund contribution has been enhanced to 8 per cent of pay in respect of the establishments employing 50 or more persons and engaged in certain industries. The enhanced rate of contribution in respect of edible oil manufacturing industry other than *vanaspati* was brought into operation with effect from 1st November, 1963. The members and employers are allowed to contribute at higher rate, if so desired by them.

Employees' Provident Fund Act, 1952

The Employees' State Insurance Act, 1948 and the Schemes thereunder were not made applicable to any centre in the District upto 1966.

Under the earlier Central Government's enactment, namely, Minimum Wages Act, 1948, the State Government had fixed minimum wages in certain

M. P. Minimum Wages Fixation Act, 1962

Scheduled Industries. The minimum wages so fixed and remained applicable at the time of reorganization of the State in 1956 were revised in 1959. Later, on the passing of the State legislation in 1962, the rates of wages as applicable in 1959 to the Scheduled Industries were deemed to have been fixed under the State Act. The question of revision of minimum wages in bidi industry over that of 1959 wage-rates again came up in 1965. Damoh came under zone III which included places having a population of more than 5,000. The revised rates of Rs. 2.10 for rolling 1,000 bidis, Rs. 90 and Rs. 60 per month for bidi sorters and checkers, respctively, and Rs. 60 per month for *Bhattiwallas* (an employee in bidi manufacturing whose work is baking of bidies in an oven) came into force with effect from 1st October, 1966. Revised rates for other categories of workers in bidi-making industry other than those referred to were also fixed. Some of the Scheduled Industries in the District in which the minimum wage-rates are fixed are flour and *dal* mills, oil mills, local-self Government, construction or maintenance of roads or building operations, stone-breaking and stone-crushing, public motor transport, tanning and leather manufacturing, printing press, lac manufacturing and agriculture.

M. P. Maternity Benefits Act, 1958

In 1960 there were 11 factory establishments falling under the provisions of this Act. In this year maternity benefit to the value of Rs. 21 was given in one case. Thereafter upto 1964 no claim was preferred under the Act, though the number of establishments to which the Act was applicable had increased to 14.

CHAPTER VI

BANKING, TRADE AND COMMERCE

Banking and Finance

Finance is vital to various financial institutions and credit organisation is the back-bone of agriculture, trade and industry. In all agricultural countries some financial agency is necessary to provide credit facilities for the continuance of agricultural operations. The age-old institution of money-lenders has thus traditionally been the main agency meeting the credit requirements of the rural sector of the economy in the past. It continues to enjoy even today more or less the same prominent position in that field inspite of vigorous efforts made by Government to develop and enlarge alternative sources of credit and to control and regulate the business activities of money-lenders by various legislative measures. Enquiries were undertaken, and the report published thereafter in 1954 by the All India Rural Credit Survey Committee appointed by the Reserve Bank of India in 1951 reveals that 93 per cent of the total borrowings of cultivators are financed by non-institutional or private agencies of which most important are money-lenders who account for nearly 70 per cent. The sample-survey undertaken by the Committee further reveals that in Sagar District of which Damoh was a sub-division at that time, about 66 per cent of the debt of cultivators and about 83 per cent of the debt of non-cultivators are financed through professional money-lenders or other private agencies.

Such a predominant position would have meant no harm to our rural economy, had the money-lenders refrained from indulging in unhealthy practices and exorbitant charges they make for their services. These evil practices are known to all, including debtors, but money-lenders still continue to enjoy almost the same predominant position in the rural economy of Damoh District as in the past. This is due to the fact that the methods employed by them in dealing with debtors, though objectionable in other ways, have the advantage of being extremely flexible, making funds available promptly and for all purposes and sometimes even without any kind of legal formalities. This is exactly what Government or Co-operative Credit Agencies have not yet been able to do in the context of prevailing peculiar characteristics of the rural economy. Hence the dependence on money-lenders.

In the early period this District was usually being financed through its temples which, in fact working as full-fledged banks, and generally they used

Indigenous Banking in Early period

to satisfy the dire needs of the public without any written documents or registration. The people taking loans from the temples used to pay their dues in time and also with reasonable interest as the sanction behind all these transactions was the fear and respect for God. However, during the Muslim and Maratha rule, since zamindars and jagirdars began to advance money, the borrowings from the temples were completely stopped. The degenerated management and lack of funds were additional factors responsible for their decline. During the early British period, though zamindars, jagirdars and *malguzars* carried on money-lending business as a secondary occupation, their place was taken over by the business community scattered even in the remote places, and the whole District came under their influence. The village *bania* used to finance the rural population in cash as well as in kind at a very high rate of interest, varying from 10 to 40 per cent. This practice was known as '*sawai*' system or 25 per cent per annum, usually in transactions in kind.

Money-lenders in early period

The earliest authoritative source of information about money-lending and banking business as well as the system of providing credit under Land Improvement and Agriculture Acts in British times is the District Gazetteer compiled and published as far back as 1906. The old District Gazetteer records the important money-lending firms of Raghunath Das Hamirmal Oswal Bania of Ajmer (their representative in Damoh was Sukhdeo Munim, and operated the business under the name of 'Bari Dukan'), Seth Dalchand Parwar Bania of Damoh, Raja Gokul Das, the Pateria family of Garia, and Pyarelal Palliwal Brahman. The ordinary rate of interest on private loans in cash was 12 to 18 per cent for large sums or on mortgage of property, and 25 per cent for small sums not secured. For very small sums for a few months, the rate may be 50 to 75 per cent. For loans of the spring grains for seed the ordinary rate of interest was *sawai* or 25 per cent for the period between seed-time and harvest, and occasionally 50 per cent to a new borrower in the first year. In the case of loans for consumption (unproductive loans), which were called *Khawai*, the rate of interest was one or two per cent per month. The succession of bad years which ensued from 1893 to 1901 in the District increased the load of debt to an intolerable extent. Under the circumstances the practice of taking bonds for all debt became customary. This restriction of credit was a natural result of the great indebtedness of the agricultural classes. On the other hand, advances under the Land Improvement Loans Act had been insignificant except during the years 1896-1900, when money was given under special conditions for the purpose of providing labour during the famines. All this had resulted in a huge amount of indebtedness of Rs. 40 lakhs or a sum equal to fourteen times of the land revenue. The debt reconciliation work aggravated the situation and fewer persons were ready to advance loans. Under the stress of circumstances even land held in superior right had to be given up. The number of absolute occupancy holdings fell from 15,336 to 15,120 and their total area from

1,33,000 to 1,19,000 acres during the decade 1891 to 1901. The same was the trend in the case of occupancy holdings. There was substantial decline in the number of plough cattle from 87,000 to 73,000 and cropped area decreased by nearly 20 per cent. In 1899, in view of the striking deterioration in agriculture and the rate at which holdings were being surrendered in consequence of debt, a scheme for the voluntary conciliation and remission of debts had to be arranged.

The Land Revenue Settlement Reports of Damoh

The Land Revenue Settlement Report of Damoh District for the period from 1908 to 1931 has recorded that, though landlords and *malguzars* had paid off in later years their debts incurred in the famines due to very good seasons for three consecutive years, the position of small cultivators remained almost unchanged. The Settlement Report of 1914 pointed out that the curse of comparatively unrestricted credit at exorbitant interest was very heavy in the *Haveli* and the Bearma Valley, and was conspicuous even among the Gonds of the hills. On the contrary, seed grain was borrowed at 25 per cent by many a man who could sow his own seed, but felt lonely without the protection of the banker to turn to in time of need, because if in any year he ceased to borrow he would be charged 50 per cent on resuming the connection. Tenants never felt indebtedness as a burden and a necessary evil. This was the peculiar characteristic of the poor cultivators during this period. The tenant was apparently content to continue his bond-slave for life. The reasons for such a state of affairs were nothing but uncertainty of agricultural conditions and lack of alternative source of an agency to finance short-term and long-term credit needs at the time of emergency. All this shows the predominant position of the money-lenders in the District and their influence on the rural economy of the District.

It was reported that "Damoh is one of the most insecure districts in the Central Provinces and the general attitude of the villagers was one of apathy and indifference and appeared to be one of hopeless resignation. Since they had no incentive to endeavour to secure the full outturn by proper cultivation of their field, or even if debts were conciliated or remitted, it is extremely doubtful whether after their lifelong attitude to indebtedness the tenants would be free from debt. It must be remembered that neither they nor their fathers have ever known any economic system or methods of finance except those prevailing".[1] Very few of them only were literate and hence had to depend on the honesty of the money-lenders for the correctness of their account. The principal problems thus were the high interest rate and poor credit. The average rate at which money could be borrowed was about 25 per cent a year. A very small margin being left for subsistence there was no scope for repayment of debt on one hand, and on the other, the actual security which the tenants

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1. Provincial Banking Enquiry Committee, C.P. and Berar, Appendix E. II, p. 272.

had to offer was very little. Moreover, the land was of very low value, and with shifting cultivation, can hardly be valued as asset at all.

It is clear from the foregoing description that Damoh District presents itself as one of the worst victims of money-lenders. The general attitude of the cultivators, poor economic condition and absence of proper agencies to provide credit in needs in right time in the right manner were the obvious causes which made the poor cultivators an easy prey of the money-lenders. Non-interference in economic matters, which the British Government observed in the beginning, resulted in the absence of restrictions upon the freedom of individual action. This consequently led to absolute freedom of contract to money-lenders, to fix any rate of interest. The system of justice and administration introduced by the British provided an additional coverage for money-lenders' action in the early period.

However, of late, the Government realised the need for proper control of money-lending and attempts were made to enact several Acts such as Usurious Loans Act, 1918, the Central Provinces and Berar Money-lenders' Act 1934, etc. These Acts were directed towards eliminating usury and other malpractices through a system of registration and compulsory maintenance of accounts, and redemption of old debts. The necessity of providing alternative source of finance was also realised and much was hoped from the co-operative movement, particularly from the co-operative credit societies.

However, the attitude of the money-lending class on the whole had been one of indifference, and they appeared generally to be left alone to carry on their business according to their own methods, in which their financial position with regard to their other business activities remains shrouded in mystery. The indigenous banker continued in his old ways without profiting from new experiments and, in the complexities of modern credit and finance, the craft of the indigenous banker became somewhat obsolete. Yet they cannot be ignored from the banking, trade and commercial activities As long as the rural economy of the District remains in all its uncertainties and vagaries, the indigenous banker or money-lender in one form or the other will remain firmly rooted.

The general credit facilities available for agricultural, trade and commercial activities in the Dirstrict at the moment include the village *mahajans*, registered money-lenders, joint stock banks, co-operative credit societies and banks and loans from the Government. The rural and urban indebtedness and the extent to which usury is prevalent in the District is dealt with first so that the present position and the relative role of different credit agencies and need for supplying funds to right persons in right time in right manner could be studied in a clear perspective.

Indebtedness

There had been no systematic study of the problem of indebtedness both in rural and urban areas in the District. The old Gazetteer of Damoh District (1906) mentioned that the load of debt increased to an intolerable extent during the famine years of 1893 to 1901 and was estimated at Rs. 40 lakhs or a sum equal to fourteen times the land revenue of the villages and that the proprietors and tenants alike were seriously embarassed. The earlier Gazetteer also recorded the fact that villagers were practically dependent for seed, cattle and food on advances from money-lenders, that it was rare to find more than two or three men in a village who sowed their own seed and that a great many of them were in debt. However, too much importance can not be attached to this fact as villagers often take advances from their *sahukars* merely to keep up the connection so that if they are in need they may have a banker ready at hand. The most fruitful causes of debt were extravagant expenditure on marriages and the possession of large holdings. The decade 1901-1911 was as disastrous for the tenancy as for proprietors, and under the stress of circumstances even land held in superior right had to be given up. The cropped area decreased by about 20 per cent. All these factors led to a scheme for the voluntary conciliation and remission of debts in 1890-99. Under this scheme nearly 15,000 tenants and share holders had their debt amounting to Rs. 40 lakhs settled. Nearly 28 lakhs of rupees were wiped off and arrangements were made for the remaining amount to be paid in instalments.

The volume and the magnitude of indebtedness in the District could not find place in the Settlement Report of the District (1914), but hopes were entertained that after the debt conciliation proceedings of 1898-99, the necessity for it will never occur. But the findings of the Central Provinces and Berar Banking Enquiry Committee, 1929-30, could not endorse the above comments and during the course of enquiry in the District in 1930-31, it was estimated that 73 per cent of the persons in the District were indebted and that the total amount of indebtedness was Rs. 99,80,200, i.e., Rs. 31,51,819 for *Malguzars* and Rs. 68,28,381 for cultivators. Out of this, the debts due to Government consisted of land revenue of Rs. 3,14,249 suspended owing to crop failure, and *taccavi* advances of Rs. 9,69.299. During the period the purposes for which debts were borrowed were payment of earlier debts (31.6 per cent), maintenance and household expenses (21.4%), expenses on agricultural operations (27.6%), marriage and ceremonies (8.4%), and payment of revenue or rent (4.1%). The sources of debt were *mahajans* (61.6%), landlords (23.8%), Government (13.1%) and co-operatives (1.5%). Out of the total loan received 83.4 per cent were unsecured and 16.6 per cent secured. The total debt represented an average of Rs. 292 per tenant or Rs. 11 per acre.

An important landmark in the work of assessing the volume and magnitude of rural indebtedness on modern and scientific lines was made in the year 1950-51 when the All India Rural Credit Survey Committee was appointed by

the Reserve Bank of India. The committee made detailed and exhaustive sample survey of rural indebtedness in Sagar district under which the area of the present Damoh District was included. Therefore, there can be no justification for applying it to the results thus obtained to Damoh District. An approach to the approximation of the truth can, however, be made with certain reservations. This is being necessitated in the absence of any other authoritative source at our disposal.

The survey revealed that 65.9 per cent of the average borrowings per cultivating family were from professional money-lenders, while only 23.2% were taken from the Government. More than 50 per cent of the outstanding debts of the cultivating families also owed to the professional money-lenders. The picture among the non-cultivating families, being 83% of average borrowings and 76.8% of outstanding debts from professional money-lenders, is even more striking.

The purpose for which the amount was borrowed, for all families on an average in terms of absolute amount was Rs. 116 for non-farm and business expenditure, Rs. 101 for family expenses, Rs. 95 for capital expenditure on farms, Rs. 55 for current expenditure on farms, and Rs. 17 for other expenses. As far as sources of finance were concerned, average debt per family was Government Rs. 152, Co-operative Banks and Central Bank Rs. 6, Relatives Rs. 27, Agricultural money-lenders Rs. 8 and Professional Money-Lenders Rs. 234. The analysis of the figures in detail revealed two most striking facts that while big cultivators are indebted more or less equally between Government sources and professional money-lenders, the small cultivators lean heavily on the professional money-lenders. Perhaps the procedural difficulties involved in obtaining loans from government sources act as a deterrent to small cultivators in taking advantage of them.

A study of the growth of debt during 1951-52 carried out by the Survey revealed that the average growth of debt per family of cultivators was Rs. 314 and that of non-cultivators Rs. 51. Taking all families into account the average growth of debt per family was Rs. 239.

All these facts may be applied to the present Damoh District, and they present us a picture of the rural economy of the District which is not at all a heartening one. They also draw attention to the fact that the professional money-lender continues to play a dominant role in providing the rural credit in the District, partly because the debt owed to him is accumulated by the families over a considerable period of time. The above picture presents a case of strengthening the credit and financial institutions in the District where most of the persons are on marginal subsistence level of living and the ability to save is almost negligible.

It should, however, be remembered that since no enquiry and survey were undertaken either for the agricultural labourers or factory labourers or others in the District, a complete, coherent picture of indebtedness in its totality cannot emerge. One can at best form only a general idea about the situation.

Credit Agencies available in the District

An attempt has been made in the following lines to assess the present position and the role of various agencies supplying credit in rural areas to cultivators and non-cultivators as well as in other field in Damoh District. The agencies which supply credit may be grouped into four categories: (1) agriculturist money-lenders, professional money-lenders and commission agents or non-institutional private individual agencies; (2) Co-operative Credit Societies and Banks, (3) Joint Stock Bank and other organised financial institutions, and (4) Government.

According to the Rural Credit Enquiry Committee 1954, the average amount of borrowings from these credit agencies in Damoh District in 1950-51 was as under:—

Table No. VI-1

Average Amount of Borrowings in the District (1950-1951)

	All families		Cultivating families		Non-cultivating families	
	Average debt	Average borrowings (Rs.)	Average debt (Rs.)	Average borrowings (Rs.)	Average debt (Rs.)	Average borrowings (Rs.)
(1) Total Debt/ Borrowings	430	384	568	514	80	54
(2) Agencies (i) Money-lenders	272	282	353	388	68	50
	(63.4)	(66.1)	(52.2)	(75.5)	(84.7)	(93.2)
(ii) Co-operatives	06	05	008	—	—	—
	(1.3)	(1.3)		(1.3)		
(iii) Central Banks	—	Nil	(1.4)	—	—	Nil
(iv) Government	152	87	207	119	12	04
	(35.3)	(22.6)	(36.4)	(23.2)	(15.3)	(6.8)

Note:—Percentage to total are in brackets.

All these figures given in the Table are self explanatory. They reveal the hold of money-lenders in the District. Things may have changed since then but it is definite that money-lenders are the main class for catering the credit facilities to the cultivators in the District. It is to be remembered in this context that the rate of interest charged by them in comparison to other institutional credit agencies is very high. The report mentioned that in Damoh District about 57.7 per cent of loans bear 25 to 37½ per cent, and about 38.5 per cent bear 18¾ to 25 per cent rate of interest. In other words, about 96 per cent of loans bear not less than 18¾ per cent of interest per annum.

With this background, we shall now deal with the main purveyors of credit in the old financial set-up, namely, village and town money-lenders, indigenous bankers, generally residing in big towns, and then of new agencies like the co-operative Credit Societies and banks, and Joint Stock Banks and other financial institutions, which have come into existence in comparatively recent times.

Money-lenders

As evident from the foregoing description, money-lenders had a prominent position in the rural economy of the District. As a matter of fact money-lending was the chief form of investment. Everybody who could save something, except perhaps Government officials, took to money-lending. Thus, apart from professional money-lenders, money-lending was resorted to by some traders, shop-keepers, brokers, etc., who were able to save and lend. In the rural areas, village headmen, *malguzars* and some cultivators, besides the professional money-lenders, advanced loans to those in need. Besides the mortgage of landed property with or without possession, there seemed in vogue the practice also of service mortgage,[1] particularly among lower and backward castes.

The situation has, however, considerably changed during the last sixty years. Only a few persons are now found to follow money-lending as a sole profession of life. The money-lenders now include village money-lenders, land-owners or agriculturist money-lenders, goldsmiths and dealers in ornaments who specialise in loan secured by pledge of ornaments, *shroffs* and other persons dealing in *hundles*, merchants, commission-agents and *dalals*. There are two types of *adhatiyas* or commission agents, *pukka* and *katchha*, in this District who play a prominent role in financing money to agriculturists. The system of working is the same as is found in other districts of the State. The *adhatiyas* in this District charge at a flat rate of Rs. 0=75 per hundred rupees as commission in addition to other expenditure incurred by them plus the usual rate of interest.

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1. The system in which in the absence of mortgaging tangible wealth, services are placed at the disposal of creditor by the debtor.

In the District a large section of money-lenders was found indulging in certain questionable practices, thereby exploiting the helplessness of the villagers. In these circumstances, it was found necessary to regulate the business of money-lenders by appropriate legislative measures and executive orders. Debt Conciliation Boards were constituted even as early as 1899 and debt relief measures were also introduced. By and large, it resulted later in the enactment of Central Provinces and Berar Money-lenders Act 1934 with amendments in 1937 and in 1939, the Central Provinces and Berar Money-lenders (Supplementary) Act, 1939, and C.P. and Berar Protection of Debtors Act, 1937. The courts were given wide and farreaching powers to give relief to the debtors. The Debt conciliation Board in Damoh District was established in the year 1932-33 and the extent of relief given in the District is given in the Table below:—

Debt Conciliation Board

Table No. VI—2

Working of the Debt Conciliation Board, 1932-33

S. No.	Year	No. of applications recd. for conciliation	No. of Cases decided	Total amount involved	Amount by which debt was reduced
1	2	3	4	5	6
1.	1936-37	2438	2438	Rs. 14,55,322-5-0	Rs. 4,49,872-12-0
2.	1937-38	1770	1770	Rs. 23,94,912-10-7	Rs. 5,32,074-8-0

Now, registration and licensing of money-lenders and maintenance of accounts in prescribed form is made compulsory. Moreover, furnishing of periodical statement of accounts of debtors and issue of receipts to them for every payment received is made necessary for the money-lenders. The Acts also specify the maximum rate of interest allowed on a secured and on an unsecured loan. It is 12 per cent simple and 10 per cent compound rate of interest on secured Loans and 18 per cent simple and 10 per cent compound on unsecured loans, respectively.

The yearwise number of registered money-lenders in the District is given below.

Year	Number
1956	504
1957	525
1958	541
1959	471
1960	539
1961	556

1962	567
1963	586
1964	599
1965	595
1966	467
1967	491
1968	507
1969	497
1970	—

Source: Sub-Registrar, Damoh and Hatta.

Debt relief and money-lending legislation was viewed with alarm by private money-lenders. They took a gloomy view of their risks and hesitated in providing loan facilities to agriculturists. A vaccum was thus created in the rural credit structure. The Government took a serious view of the situation and cooperative movement was intensified in the rural areas.

Cooperatives

History of Co-operative Movement

In this District the co-operative movement was started with the establishment of the Cooperative Central and Land-mortgage Bank Ltd., Damoh in 1911, with a share capital of Rs. 4,130, and a primary co-operative credit society having 114 members only. In the beginning its business was only to finance primary credit societies. The number of co-operative societies affiliated to it increased to 93 in 1921, 63 in 1931, and 108 in 1941. By this time the working capital and loans advanced to their members also increased gradually. Since the year 1934 non-agricultural credit societies also came in the field, but their working showed only gradual progress. Since no separate land mortgage bank was in existence in the District for long-term financing the Co-operative Central Bank started the work of Land Mortgage Bank through its separate section with effect from 24th April, 1946. Prior to this, long-term loan was financed through the Co-operative Land mortgage Bank, Sagar. However, though the Cooperative Land Mortgage Bank had 35 years standing in the pre-Independence period of co-operative movement in the District, it failed to cater to the short-term and long-term credit needs of the agriculturists alike. The movement, however, gained momentum in the post-Independence era and now includes all types of cooperative societies with a greater and better coverage in the District.[1]

All the Co-operative Societies may be grouped into two categories—(1) Credit Societies and (2) Non-credit Societies. Credit Societies may further be classified into (1) Central Banks (2) Agricultural Credit Societies and (3) Non-agricultural Credit Societies. In the same way non-credit societies may be classified into (1) Agricultural other than primary (for rural areas), (2) Non-

agricultural Societies and (3) Societies other than primary. These societies may either be multipurpose co-operative societies or simple cooperative societies.

Central Co-operative Bank, Damoh

The Central Co-operative Bank, Damoh, was established on 19th October, 1911. The Bank has seven offices at Damoh Hatta, Patharia, Jabera, Batiyagarh, Tendukheda and Patera with its head office at Damoh. The area of operation of the Bank is the whole of Damoh District, and all the 1401 villages of the District were brought under cooperation by the end of 1969-70.

The total membership of the Bank in the year 1969-70 was 469 including 168 societies, 327 individuals (82 regular and 245 nominal) and the State Government. The authorised share capital of the Bank is Rs. 25,00,000 of which a sum of Rs. 16,56,680 was the paid-up capital. The member Societies had contributed Rs. 11,53,050 towards the paid-up capital while the share of individuals and State Government was Rs. 24,630 and Rs. 4,79,000 respectively. During the same year the Bank distributed loans amounting to Rs. 1,20,43,995.

The detailed working of the Cooperative Central Bank, Damoh, from 1957 to 1970 has been gven in the Appendix. The following Table depicts the working of the Bank at the end of the successive Five Year Plans and for 1966-67 to 1969-70.

Table No. VI—3

Central Co-operative Bank, Damoh

(amount in lakh Rs.)

Year	Membership	Share Capital	Loan financed	Loan recovered
At the end of First Five Year Plan 1955-56	439	1.54	6.85	6.01
At the end of Second Five Year Plan (1960-61)	495	5.68	39.14	37.24
At the end of Third Five Year Plan (1965-66)	419	13.35	76.08	69.10
1966-67	320	13.99	80.96	72.44
1967-68	333	15.19	181.96	82.04
1968-69	509	15.39	162.72	150.88
1969-70	502	16.57	120.44	102.70

Source: Assistant Registrar, Cooperative Societies, Damoh.

Damoh District Co-operative land Development Bank, Damoh

The Bank was established on 25th January, 1965 with an authorised share capital of Rs. 5 lakhs divided in 50,000 shares of Rs. 10 each. Prior to this the business of the Bank was being done by the Central Cooperative Bank, Damoh. The area of operation of this Bank is the whole of Damoh District.

The membership of the Bank in 1969-70 consisted of 563 borrowers class 'A', 2107 borrowers class 'B' and 16 non-borrowers class 'A', totalling to 2686. The working capital of the Bank as on 30 June, 1970 was Rs. 18,57,527. Some other details regarding the working of the Co-operative Bank are given below.

Table No. VI—4

The District Land Mortgage Bank, Damoh

(amount in Rs.)

Year	Membership	Share Capital	Loan Financed	Loan Recovered
1965-66	185	27,694	2,92,350	16,538
1966-67	957	36,500	1,95,800	30,865
1967-68	1299	51,788	2,73,500	53,596
1968-69		73,751	4,42,450	87,307
1969-70	2687	1,00,591	5,08,100	93,413

Source: Assistant Registrar, Cooperative Societies, Damoh

The Bank provides loans to the individual agriculturists for repayment of old debts, improvement of land, and for purchase of agricultural implements. During the year 1969-70, the Bank financed Rs. 5,08,100 to the agriculturists for the following purposes.—

S. No.	Purpose of Loan	(amount in Rs.)
1.	Improvement of land	17,300
2.	Construction of new wells	3,48,700
3.	Purchasing of pump-set (Electric motor and oil-engine)	99,100
4.	Purchasing of tractor	43,000
	Total	5,08,100

Primary Cooperative Credit Societies

The primary cooperative credit societies have been functioning in the District mainly as agencies to provide short-term credit to producer members. Some of these societies were also entrusted with the work of distributing fertilisers and manures on agency basis, though depositing and advancing loans constitute their main functions. In addition to these the societies also render certain other services in the field of production and marketing of agricultural produce.

The number, membership, share capital and credit operations of agricultural cooperative credit societies from 1955 to 1970 were as under.

Table No. VI—5

Agricultural Cooperative Credit Societies in Damoh District

(amount in Rs.)

Year	Number of societies	Membership	Share capital	Loan financed	Loan recovered
At the end of First Five Year Plan					
1955-56	169	6,766	2,069	5,37,888	6,00,000
At the end of Second Five Year Plan					
1960-61	272	13,000	16,507	18,37,346	16,12,428
At the end of Third Five Year Plan					
1965-66	271	24,090	25,908	39,81,465	36,47,492
1966-67	126	26,650	17,09,272	50,90,213	37,19,237
1967-68	126	28,923	19,49,457	60,44,782	56,10,604
1968-69	125	29,378	22,76,602	78,23,725	69,87,583
1969-70	125	30,458	26,60,055	1,20,73,000	63,12,511

Source: Assistant Registrar, Cooperative Societies, Damoh.

Non-Agricultural Cooperative Credit Societies

Apart from this, non-agricultural cooperative credit societies are also playing an important role in providing credit facilities through cooperative sector in the field of production and marketing. The table given below shows the number, membership, share capital, etc., for the years 1955 to 1970.

Table No. VI—6

Non-agricultural Cooperative Credit Societies in Damoh District

(amount in Rs.)

Year	Number of Societies	Membership	Share capital	Loan financed	Loan recovered
At the end of First Five Year Plan					
1955-56	6	134	2,069	9,022	—
At the end of Second Five Year Plan					
1960-61	12	617	16,507	65,062	—
At the end of Third Five Year Plan					
1965-66	10	712	25,908	62,301	1,03,154
1966-67	11	782	27,500	20,615	39,397
1967-68	9	949	29,259	47,073	43,461
1968-69	9	932	27,971	61,992	58,748
1969-70	8	648	16,856	18,764	34,705

Source: Assistant Registrar, Cooperative Societies, Damoh.

Joint Stock Banks

The Commercial Banks (Scheduled and non-Scheduled), which form the main component of modern banking structure, specialise only in certain places of economic activities because of their structure, method of business, etc. Their interest in agricultural credit lies not so much in production as in marketing. Thus, the location of these banks is necessarily guided by the large concentration of places of agricultural produce, industry and trade, which are mainly the characteristics of urban centres. Since the District was one of the poorest and backward districts predominantly with rural character, the modern banking system and its facilities could not be made available upto 1944. A branch of the Sonar Bangla Bank was established at Damoh in the year 1944, but was closed soon after in 1946. The Central Bank of India also had its branch in Damoh since 1944, but being an uneconomic unit it was also closed on 30th June, 1957. The State Bank of India too had its pay-office at Damoh upto 1957.

The beginning of the banking era in reality began in the District when, under the expansion programme launched by the State Bank of India, the pay-office of the Bank at Damoh was elevated to the size of a full-fledged branch on 10th April 1957. Apart from the general banking business, namely, acceptance of demand and time-deposits from public and granting of loans to approved borrowers against the security of goods and the like, the branch also

maintanins the Government currency chest and conducts State and Central Government business. The special feature of the branch business, in recent years, has been to grant advances to agriculturists and other approved borrowers against the security of ware house receipts covering food-grains, etc., provide financial assistance to small-scale industrial units, and to provide assistance to cooperative credit structure of the District by granting over-draft facilities at a concessional rate of interest.

The average amount of advances made, deposits received, loans granted to agriculturists against Warehouse Receipts and financial assistance to small-scale industrial units by the Bank from 1961 to 1965 was as under:

Table No. VI—7

Volume of Business

Year	Average Deposits (Rs.)	Average Advances (Rs.)	Loans against Ware-house Receipts (Rs.)	Loans to small Scale industrial units (Rs.)
1961	9.66,000	2,18,000	—	—
1962	13,10,000	3,44,000	—	10,000
1963	15,56,000	3,48,000	—	—
1964	9,01,000	2,48,000	2,000	17,000
1965	13,24,000	2,56,000	1,000	17,000

The banking activities increased rapidly in Damoh District after the nationalisation of leading commercial banks in the country in August 1969. Till the end of 1967, there were only two bank offices in the District. The number increased to five by the end of September, 1970. The centre-wise list of commercial bank offices in Damoh District as at the end of September, 1970 is given below.

Expansion of Banking Activities

S. No.	Name of the Centre	Name of the bank	Type and Number of offices
1.	Damoh	State Bank of India	1 (B)
2.	Damoh	Punjab National Bank	1 (P. 0)
3.	Hindoria	State Bank of India	1 (S. 0)
4.	Hatta	State Bank of India	1 (B)
5.	Jabera	State Bank of India	1 (S. 0)

Note.—B—Branch Office, S.O.—Sub-Office, P.O. Pay Office.

In this District there were two branch offices and two sub-offices of State Bank of India and one pay office of Punjab National Bank by the end of September 1970. Central Cooperative Bank, Damoh is also transacting banking business in the District.

Average Population per Office

At the end of December, 1967, the average population per banking office in the District was 2,65,000, while the State average was 1,31,000. With the branch expansion activities, the average population per banking office in the District was reduced to 1,14,000 while the state average stood at 1,16,000 persons per banking office at the end of September, 1970. Damoh District ranked 228 in average population per office of commercial banks in district-wise data arranged in ascending order of population served as at the end of September, 1970.

As on 26 June, 1970 out of the five bank offices two reported advances of Rs. 19 lakhs and three reported deposits of Rs. 50 lakhs.

Volume of Business

The role that any banking system has to play is to mobilise the savings of the nation, provide cheap means of payment and allocate credit in such a way as to produce optimum productivity in all sectors. The banks thus control the string of economic life of the community. Till date, the commercial banks in the District were concentrated at places of agricultural marketing.

The Nationalisation of leading commercial banks appears to have raised the expectations of the cultivators in regard to the availability of credit on reasonable terms in the District. The nationalised banks are expected to play a very important and a more active role in the economic rejuvenation of the District.

Government Finances

Under the present system and structure financing to agriculturists has been undertaken by the Central Cooperative Banks on behalf of the government. The financial assistance provided by the Government for the year 1963-64 was as under:

S. No.	Name of the Scheme	Target	Achievement	Balance
1.	Land Improvement Loans Act (Bunding)	90,000	90,000	—
2.	Agriculturists Loans Act (Bullocks)	1,40,000	1,40,000	—
3.	Sinking of new wells and repairs to old wells	32,000	32,000	—
4.	Bunding of Cropped areas	3,750	3,750	—
5.	Oil Engine Pump Sets	32,500	30,000	2,500
6.	By Planning and Development Department (for distribution in Blocks)	60,480	60,480	—
7.	For Distribution of Nitrogenous Fertilizer	88,161	63,798	24,363
8.	For Distribution of Phosphetic Fertilizer	30,000	28,706	1,294
9.	For Distribution of Improved seed	60,000	60,000	—
10.	For Popularisation of Subsidy Food Crops (Potato-seed)	58,488=50	58,488=50	—

Small Saving Schemes

The organisations attracting and mobilising the savings in the District may be grouped as (1) Post Office Saving Schemes and (2) Life Insurance. The following small-saving schemes continued their operation in the District: (1) Post Office Saving Bank Account (2) Twelve Year National Plan Certificates (3) Ten Year Treasury Savings Deposits (4) Fifteen Year Annuity Certificates and (5) Cumulative Time Deposit Scheme. The targets as well as the gross and net deposits in the Post Office Schemes in the District for the years from 1963-64 to 1966-67 were as follows:—

Table No. VI—8

Small Savings in the District

April to March	Yearly Net Targets	Gross Receipts (Rs.)	Net Receipts (Rs.)
1963-64	4 lakhs	12,01,287 (11,76,140)	1,49,416 (2.15,140)
1964-65	2 lakhs	11,58,730 (12,01,287)	1,23,391 (1,49,416)
1965-66	4 lakhs	15,40,642 (11,58,730)	1,49,416 (1,23,391)
1966-67	5 lakhs	14,88,411 (15.40.642)	2,55,563 (1,49,216)
1967-68	4 lakhs	15,69,064 (14,88,411)	52,065 (2,55,563)
1968-69	—	—	—
1969-70	4 lakhs	24,87,644	3,85,52
1970-71	5 lakhs	22,31,511	1,64,749

Source: Regional Director, National Small Saving Schemes. (The figures given in brackets are those of Reserve Bank of India. Rest are from Head Post-Offices)

The small savings statistics given above show the poor economic back-ground of the District. The small savings per capita at the 1961 population rate Rs. 2 with slight variations in different years. Targets were never fulfilled. All this again strengthens the case for sound financial and credit institutions in the District, so that the unproductive wealth of the District may be harnessed for the betterment of the poor economic conditions of people.

Life Insurance

The other important source of attracting savings, is life insurance policies. Damoh District has no branch of Life Insurance Corporation as yet and work is done by field officers with headquarters at Sagar. The following Table gives the number of policies issued and sums assured for the years from 1963-64 to

Table No. VI—9

Life Insurance in the District

Year	No. of Policies issued	Average Amount of Policy issued Rs.
1963-64	757	29,38,250
1964-65	678	36,64,500
1965-66	435	25,98,000
1966-67	471	30,32,750

The Life Insurance Corporation of India has now undertaken fire, marine and other general insurance business with effect from 1st April, 1964. The other general insurance companies operated their business with their headquarters at Sagar and Jabalpur. Except the General Insurance Company, no other insurance company has done any significant work.

As there are no institutions of high finance in the District there is no stock exchange here.

State Assistance to Industrial Development

The State assistance to industries under the cooperative sector has been dealt with earlier. For the development of small-scale industries the Weavers Cooperative Society, Damoh and Adarsh Nav Sevak Telghani Cooperative Society Damoh, got advance loans and subsidies from the Government. The assistance could not, however, be extended in the First Five Year Plan period. During the Second Five Year Plan period, the Telghani Society of Damoh could secure a subsidy of about Rs. 18,000 for constructing sheds, towards share capital and for purchase of machinery. The Leather Cooperative Factory, Damoh could avail only Rs. 4,779 out of a target of Rs. 88,000. The Weavers Cooperative Society, Damoh gets a subsidy at the rate of Rs. 200 per loan towards the Working Capital, loan for purchase of yarns, payment of wages, etc. For enrolling more members the Government gives the Share Capital contribution at the rate of Rs. 18=75 per share, while the member is to contribute only Rs. 6=25. For running the Sales Depot, it also gets a subsidy of Rs. 4,000.

Other Financial Institutions

There is no stock exchange in Damoh District. The District is, however, being served by a branch of Madhya Pradesh Financial Corporation at Jabalpur. This will improve liaison with the Directorate of Industries and ensure better coverage of the District. As on 31st March, 1971, the Corportion sanctioned a loan of Rs. 1.50 lakhs to 3 small-scale industries and out of this Rs. 1.46 lakhs were disbursed to these 3 industries.

Currency and Coinage

No old records are available pertaining to local currency or any other coinage system in the District. When the region was annexed to the British territory it seems that certain denomination of coins in use in British India had also been current in this District. The Decimal system of currency is in operation since 1957 and all transactions are now being made in the new currency.

Trade

The authentic statement of past history of trade and commercial activities in the District is available only since the time of the 30 years' Settlement (1863-64). It was reported that trade was considerable in the District at that time. As recorded in the earlier Gazetteer of 1905, articles were brought from Mirzapur and the upper provinces along the Hatta-Gaisiabad road, consisting of European and country-made piece goods, betel, coconuts, hardware, tobacco, spices, rum and sugar. The imports in transit through the District were valued at Rs. 13 lakhs. A great portion of these were sent to Sagar and Bhopal and merely passed through Damoh. Salt was brought by the *Banjaras* in large quantities from Rajputana. The value of salt annually carried through the District was estimated at three lakhs of rupees. The exports consisted of wheat, gram, rice, hides, *ghee*, cotton, and coarse cloth. This flourishing state of trade was principally due to the transport of salt from Rajputana to the Bundelkhand markets. On the abolition of the salt customs line in 1874, and the introduction of the sytem of levying duty at the place of manufacture, this trade ceased and at the same time the traffic with Bundelkhand became much smaller. In the early eighties the export of grain to Jabalpur for the European markets began to develop. The traffic registration effected during the year 1885-86 indicated that the District exported about six lakh maunds of grain and oil-seeds to the Railway at Murwara and Jabalpur. The receipts in return amounted to 1.5 lakh maunds, the principal items being salt and sugar.

Trade in early period

Since the opening of the Sagar-Katni line passing through Damoh in 1898, the trade of the District has practically concentrated at Damoh Station. The exports of grain and oilseeds had constituted more than 90 per cent of the total trade in the beginning. *Ghee*, lac, *kutha*, *singhara*, and betel leaves were other important items of export. The principal imports were European and Indian twist yarn and piece goods, sugar, salt from Bombay, Ahmedabad, Jabalpur and Rajputana, kerosene oil, and brass vessels from Mirzapur and Kanpur. Commodities of daily use were other important items of import during the first decade of the century. The total bulk of exports and imports was about five to seven lakh maunds and their value ranged from Rs. 14 to 18 lakhs.

Rail-borne Trade

The result of giving the District a railway and better roads was the concentration of trade at Mauganj, a noble market just outside Damoh railway station where about a thousand carts with as many pack of animals can be parked. This had resulted in a steady growth of trade in the years that followed. However, it should be remembered here that because the roads were inadequate and the villages of Batyagarh and tendukheda area were mostly under dense forests infested with dacoits, the interior areas actually had no connection or relation with the rest of the area of plain in the District. Since Damoh town was the only place connected adequately with Jabalpur, Sagar, Bhopal, Chhatarpur and Panna by motorable roads, and was on the Bina-Katni line, it enjoyed a unique position and remained the only centre of trade in the District. From the beginning of the century the courses and destination of commodities of export and import remained in their nature the same as described above. Thus, in brief during the pre-Independence period the trade of the District meant the out-flow or export of the surplus agricultural produce like wheat, oilseeds, and forest produce such as lac and *kuttha*. The inflow or import included the necessaries of life, e.g., cotton cloth, sugar, salt, kerosene oil, etc.

However, the trade and commercial activities of the District gained momentum only after the attainment of Independence, particularly with the beginning of the Five Year Plans.

Present Position

According to the census report of 1961, 2.5 per cent of workers in the District have been returned in category VII of 'trade and commerce', while the State as a whole returned 2.4 per cent. Participation in trade and commerce is somewhat less (2%) in Hatta tahsil but greater (28%) in Damoh tahsil. Those engaged in trade and commerce have been largely enumerated which is reflected in the break-up given above.

Persons engaged in Trade and Commerce

Roughly 8 per cent (7.9%) of the workers in 'trade and commerce' were returned from wholesale trade. More than three-fourths (75.3%) of these were in wholesale trade in cereals and pulses. The remaining workers in wholesale trade were in the trade of other eatables like oil or ghee, textile garments, fuel and lighting products, such as coal, etc. About nine-tenths (89.3%) of the workers in trade and commerce were in retail trade. More than half of these were engaged in retail trading in cereals, pulses, vegetables, fruits, sugar, spices, oil, fish, dairy products, eggs, etc. The remaining retail traders were mainly employed in (i) retail trading in fibres, yarns, *dhoti*, *saree*, readymade garments, tobacco, *bidi*, cigarettes and other tobacco-products, foodstuffs like sweetmeats, condiments, cakes, biscuits, jewellery, etc. This pattern of distribution of retail trade workers was, however, common to almost all other districts of the State and naturally so because trade has to respond to the needs of the population, and the basic needs of the population do not vary from place to place.

A small proportion, i.e., 2.8% of workers in trade and commerce was returned under 'trade and commerce miscellaneous'. These workers were engaged mainly in banking and other similar type of financial organisations.

It may be remarked that most of the retail trading activity of the rural areas take place through a net-work of markets spread all over the District.

Course of Trade

Agriculture is still the mainstay of the economy of Damoh District. Wheat and oilseeds are the main crops and they are exported to neighbouring districts of the State, and to other States of the country. Forests also play an important role in the economy of the District and considerable amount accrues to the State treasury every year from auctions of timber, *tendu* leaves and other forest products like lac and *kuttha*. They are mostly exported out of the District. The imported items are cloth, grocery, medicines, kerosene oil, machines, and the like.

Since the individual economic entity of the districts is fast disappearing with the rapid increase of means of transport and communications, particularly road transport, it is difficult to mention in absolute terms the outflow or exports and inflow or imports from and to the District. However, to have an idea of the items, the tables given in Appendix will show the outward and inward transmission of some important commodities at the Damoh Railway Station for the year 1964 to 1969.

Marketing

Marketing is of tremendous significance to the economy of a country. Its efficient organisation is vital to the health and well-being of a community. The whole programme of production individually or collectively with all efforts would be of no value if it is not followed by a safe and sound marketing system. Unless means could be found to move goods from the producer to the consumer at a price which represents a fair remuneration to the producer and is within the consumers' ability to pay, all other efforts in the field of production are nullified. Till the beginning of the Second World War the problem of marketing was not a serious one in the District, as the economy was largely a subsistence economy, when farmers produced crops for their own consumption rather than with a view to selling them in the market. Life was simple, calm and contented. No complicated problems of marketing were involved in the economy. But the entire economic fabric has since undergone a very great change, almost revolutionary in character. Marketing has come to the forefront and it is recognised as the crux of the economic problem.

Until recently the District suffered from the variety of weights and measures, paucity of good and efficient means of transport and communication, sub-standard nature of produce, i.e., mixing of superior and inferior produce,

want of storage facilities and general lack of information in rural areas with regard to market conditions. A large number of middlemen, the influence of village *Banias* and *sahukars* and weak bargaining capacity were the main reasons which came in the way of efficient working of the organisation of the markets in the District. Under these circumstances traders indulged in fraudulent malpractices of varied kinds and exploited the poor producers.

Trade Centres

At present the important goods are distributed inside the District through a few trade centres. The chief distributing centre in the District is the town of Damoh itself. Apart from a few retail markets inside, the towns of Hatta and Pathariya are the better known centres for the sale of goods. It is in the village markets, which are held weekly or bi-weekly, that the real distribution of goods is made. Daily necessaries of life like matches, salt, oil, kerosene, soap, stationery, clothes, vegetables, silver ornaments, etc., are sold in the village *bazars*. In big *mandis*, namely, Damoh, Hatta and Pathariya the cultivators bring their produce and sell it through the *adhatias* or wholesale dealers or commission agents who in their turn sell to the retailers, or export outside the District or States as the case may be.

Regulated mandi

There is only one regulated market or *mandi* in the whole of the District, the *Mauganj* grain market, started in the year 1902 by the Damoh Municipal Committee. Thereafter, the State Government handed over the management of the market to the Co-operative Marketing Society Ltd., Damoh on 8th June, 1955, under the Madhya Pradesh Agriculturists Produce Market Act of 1936. Under the constitution of Regulated Market, there are fifteen members-seven from among the agriculturists, i.e., from primary credit societies, four representatives from traders, three Government nominees and one from the Municipal Committee. The system of marketing is based on bidding. Agriculturists usually bring all kinds of grains and keep the same in heaps separately in the market and sell on bids through authorised *adhatias* and local traders. The main commodities for which transactions take place are wheat, gram, masoor, jowar, oil-seeds, ground-nuts, *tilli*, *moong*, etc. The total arrivals of commodities at *mandi*, Damoh, for the years 1963-64, to 1969-70 are given in Appendix.

Retail market and rural marketing centres

The retail marketing centres or the places where weekly *bazars* or *hats* take place are Bandakpur, Jabera, Nohta, Tendukheda, Tejgarh and Bansafarkheda in Damoh Tahsil, and Rajpura, Mandla, Patera, Magroan, Ranch, Futera, Gaisabad, Meghwan and Nibora in Hatta tahsil. No particular commodity is being sold to these places. All the daily necessities of life, vegetables, etc., are offered for sale in these markets.

Fairs

Fairs play an important role in business transactions. Though the District has no fair or *mela* of all-India or State-wide importance, quite a good number of them are being held periodically. The fairs are religious in character. The details of important fairs and *melas* big and small, held in the District alongwith other details are given in Appendix.

Co-operative Marketing

It is increasingly recognised that the co-operative form of organisation can play a significant and predominant role in improving the system of agricultural marketing. The importance of co-operative agency has assumed added significance in view of the decision of the Government to undertake a large scale programme of procurement of food-grains and putting emergency levy on producers suitably graded to the size of holdings.

Co-operative marketing is of recent origin. Till the end of the First Five year Plan period it did not exist in its true sense. The co-operative societies confined their activities only to the sale of the consumer goods and distribution of fertilisers and agricultural implements. The societies did not lay any emphasis on the marketing of the members' produce which was their primary function. They concentrated their attention on the supply and distribution of controlled commodities.

It was only during the Second Five Year Plan period that the organisation of marketing societies was taken in hand and, since then, remarkable progress has taken place in the sphere of co-operative marketing as can be seen from the Table below.

Table No. VI-10

Marketing Societies in Damoh District

Year	Number of Societies	Membership	Share Capital	Loan financed	Loan recovered
At the end of Second Five Year Plan 1960-61.	2	1,631	62,077	—	—
At the end of Third Five Year Plan 1965-66	2	1,955	3,59,905	1,55,001	1,03,154
1966-67	2	1,592	3,85,425	5,545	9,644
1967-68	2	1,732	3,75,570	37,028	32,395
1968-69	2	1,451	4,11,530	16,930	16,634
1969-70	2	1,478	4,10,860	24,648	18,756

Source: Assistant Registrar, Co-operative Societies, Damoh.

At present there are two co-operative societies one in each tahsil in the District, namely, the Damoh Co-operative Marketing Society, Damoh and the Hatta Co-operative Marketing Society, Hatta.

Damoh Co-operative Marketing Society, Damoh

It was registered in February 1931, but came into existence with effect from 19th March, 1958 only, with a paid-up share capital of Rs. 2,53,363. It has 1,265 members including 173 co-operative societies and the State Government. The area of operation of this Society is confined to Damoh Tahsil The Society has one branch at Patharia. It has one *Adhat* Shop, one Consumers' Section and one General Store. It is also managing the regulated grain market at Damoh. The Society is dealing in oil engine, pumps, grains, consumers' articles, sugar, cement, fertilizers, iron and steel, and general goods.

The Society is working as the District Agent of the Apex Marketing Society for the distribution of chemical fertilizers through 51 sub-agents at 51 centres in the District. The Society is also the district agent for the import of Controlled articles, i.e., iron, steel, sugar and cement.

It is rendering efficient and useful service to the agriculturists and to the general public. The Society has been given one rice mill from the Co-operative Department. The Society is also working as the Agent of the Apex Marketing Society Ltd., Jabalpur for the procurement of *masoor*, gram, etc., and is of great use in feeding the *dal* mill of the latter. For popularising the scheme of 'Linking of Credit with Marketing', the Society has presented 2 shields, one for Large Sized Society and the other for Service Society, and the same are presented to those societies which stand first in the above Scheme.

The Hatta Cooperative Marketing Society, Hatta

It was registered on 11th August, 1945. but came into existence only with effect from 8th September 1959. with a paid-up share capital of Rs. 34,557. It has 258 members including 82 cooperative societies and the State Government. The area of operation of the Society is confined to Hatta Tahsil. It acts as Government's agent for importing sugar. iron and steel. It also distributes grain, sugar, iron and general goods to the general public.

Warehousing

A branch of the Warehousing Corporation was established in this District in October, 1958 at Damoh. Figures of deposits of some important commodities in the years from 1960-61 to 1969-70 are given in Appendix. The agriculturists and businessmen on production of their Warehouse Receipts can take a loan to the tune of 70 to 75 per cent from the State Bank of India. The amount of loan received against Warehouse receipt is, however, insignificant and the warehouse is taken up only as a safe godown.

State Trading

Damoh became a District with effect from 1st october, 1956. Prior to that, it was a sub-division of Sagar district. As such, information pertaining to the period from 1st October, 1956 onwards is summarised below.

Procurement and distribution of food grains

Situation of crops was normal in this District upto 1962. People used to purchase the essential commodities according to their genuine need from the traders in the open market. The need for procurement and distribution of essential commodities, namely, wheat, rice, sugar, etc., did not crop up in the District till then. After the aggression of China on India in 1962, there was shortage of sugar from the beginning of 1963. The supply and distribution of sugar had, therefore, to be arranged under the provisions of sugar Control Order, 1963. On account of damage to crops in many districts of the State continuously during the years 1963-64 and 1964-65, the prices of foodgrains began to rise abruptly from the month of October, 1963.

Regulations

In order to check the rising trend in the prices of foodgrains and to ensure equitable distribution and availability of these foodgrains in the State the following orders were issued by the State Government from time to time:—

(I) The Madhya Pradesh (Wholesale and Retail) Price Control order, 1964

(II) The Madhya Pradesh Jowar (Wholesale and Retail Price Control) Order, 1964

(III) The Madhya Pradesh Wheat (Wholesale and Retail Price Control) Order. 1965

(IV) The Madhya Pradesh Jowar Procurement (Levy and Monopoly Purchase) Order, 1965

(V) The Madhya Pradesh Wheat Procurement (Levy and Monopoly Purchase) Order, 1965

(VI) The Madhya Pradesh Gram (Wholesale and Retail Price Control) Order, 1965

The above orders were issued under the Essential Commodities Act, 1955, and Defence of India Rule, 1962

Sugar

The supply of sugar to this District was made according to the allotment made by the Government from time to time. Ordinarily 138 metric Tons (6 wagons) of sugar was sanctioned to this District per month. On the eve of festivals an extra quota was also granted. The following quantity of sugar was allotted to this District during the years 1963, 1964 and 1965.

Year	Quantity
1963	1380 M.T. (60 wagons)
1964	1830 M.T. (80 wagons)
1965	1794 M.T. (78 wagons)

No foodgrain in any quantity was locally procured in the District. The following quantity was, however, imported from other districts by the Co-operative Marketing Societies and individual traders and supplied to the consumers:—

Foodgrains

Year	Kind of grain	Quantity.
1964	Wheat	460 M. T.
	Rice	430 M. T.
	Kanki	46 M. T.
1965	Wheat	92 M. T.
	Rice	115 M. T.
	Kanki	23 M. T.

No procurement was made during the years 1963 to 1965 in this District. The Madhya Pradesh State Cooperative Marketing Society was nominated as agent for procurement and distribution, i.e,, for purchase of wheat and *jowar* under the Madhya Pradesh Wheat Procurement (Levy and Monopoly Purchase) Order, 1965. The following were the centres approved for the procurement:—

Name of Tahsil	Name of Centre	
	Jowar	Wheat
1. Damoh	1. Patharia	1. Damoh
	2. Damoh	2. Patharia
		3. Bansa
	3. Nohta	4. Rajalwadi
	4. Tejgarh	5. Sarkhedi Champat
	5. Piparia	6. Jabera
		7. Nohta
		8. Tejgarh
		9. Tendukheda
		10. Piparia champat
2. Hatta	6. Hatta	11. Hatta
	7. Patera	12. Patera
	8. Hinota Kalan	13. Batiagarh
	9. Batiagarh	

There are godowns of the cooperative societies at all the centres approved for the procurement of wheat and jowar.

Distribution of Sugar and food grains to consumers

The distribution of sugar and foodgrains was made to the consumers of the urban areas of Damoh and Hatta towns through fair-price shops on the basis of identity cards categorised according to the annual income of the consumers. For the supply of indentity cards the consumers were divided into the following categories:—

Particulars of income	Category
1. Below Rs. 500	D-1
3. Rs. 500 and above but below Rs. 800	D
2. Rs. 800 and above but below Rs. 1200	C
4. Rs. 1200 and above but below Rs. 1800	B-1
5. Rs. 1800 and above but below Rs. 2400	B
6. Rs. 2400 and above but below Rs. 6000	A
7. Rs. 6000 and above but below Rs. 10,000	A
8. Above Rs. 10,000	A-Special

The quantum of sugar to be supplied per month to each category of consumer was fixed as under.

Category of card	Quantity
D-1	250 grams per unit.
D	375 ,, ,,
C	500 ,, ,,
B-1	625 ,, ,,
B	750 ,, ,,
A	1,000 ,, ,,
A-1	1,250 ,, ,,
A-Special	1,500 ,, ,,

The supply of foodgrains depended upon the availability of stock in the godowns. In fixing the quantity of foodgrains to be supplied to consumers the interest of the poor classes of consumers, i.e., those belonging to D and C categories was always safeguarded and they were provided more quantities of foodgrains than that proposed to be supplied to other categories of consumers.

In the rural areas the distribution of sugar was made through Gram Panchayats and Co-operatives. The quantum of the supply of sugar in the rural areas was fixed as below on the basis of population.

	Population					Quantity
1.	Villages having population below 1000					125 grams per head per month
2.	,,	above 1000 but below 1500				150 -do-
3.	,,	,,	1500	,,	2000	175 -do-
4.	,,	,,	2000	,,	2500	200 -do-
5.	,,	,,	2500	,,	3000	225 -do-
6.	,,	,,	3000	,,		250 -do-

As regards the supply of foodgrains it depended upon the conditions of the crop in the area and the availability of stock in the godowns. The labourers employed on the scarcity works, landless persons and petty cultivators whose crops were very badly damaged were, however, given preference in the supply of goodgrains over other classes of consumers.

In the urban areas of Damoh and Hatta towns 24 and 4 fair price shops, respectively, were opened from the beginning of the year 1964. In the rural area the fair price shops were opened as and when the necessity arose. In 1966, twenty fair price shops in the rural area of Hatta Tahsil and forty-five in Damoh Tahsil were functioning.

Merchants' and Consumers' Associations

Prominent among such associations in the District are Grain Merchants' Association, Kirana Merchants' Association, Cloth Merchants' Association, Truck Owners' Association, etc. But these associations are not registered. There are only three registered associations of bidi-makers in this District. As far as consumers' associations are concerned, during the Second World War period there were two consumers' cooperative stores known as Laxmi Co-operative Stores Ltd., in Damoh and Hatta, which were dealing in controlled commodities. But these ceased to function no sooner than controls were lifted. The District has one local weekly paper called *Kartavya,* but it does not give information regarding trade and commerce or regarding prices and their fluctuations. In brief, this wing of efficient marketing system is conspicuous by its absence in this District.

Weights and Measures

Previously the most common measure was the *Chauthia* which may be small or large. The following were the scales of measurements for the small

Chauthia.

One small *chauthia*	=60 tolas
One *ser*	=16 chouthias or 12 seers (or 21 lbs.)
One *mani*	=20 *sers*, 6 maunds or 480 lbs.

The *Chauthia* was further divided into four *paholis* of 15 tolas each. Another measure was the *paila* of 8 small *Chauthias* or 6 *seers*. The large *Chouthia* was used in Damoh, Hatta and Batiagarh Revenue Inspectors' Circles. Its scale was as follows:

One large *Chauthia*	=100 tolas
One *Kuro*	=large *Chhathkas* or 5 *seer* (or 2 lbs.)
One *Mani*	=48 Kuros or 6 maunds
One *Khandi*	=20 Kuros or 100 seers.

The *mani* was thus the same in both kinds of measurements. But in some of the hilly tracts a third *Chauthia* was used which was equivalent to 50 tolas. The *ser* then contained 16 *Chouthias* or 10 *seers* and the *mani* 5 maunds. Grain was universally sold by measurement, even in Damoh where the municipality had ordered standard weights of large *chouthia* of 100 *tolas* to be used. In the case of metals and other articles sold by weight there were two kinds of *seers* and *maunds*. The *Katcha* or Government seer containing 80 tolas and *Pakka* seer or 100 *badsuahi* or *Mughal*, (96 Government *tolas*.)

Though the Weights and Measures Act, 1878, was in force in the area yet the uniformity of the weights and measurements was made more effective here only with the introduction of the Central Provinces and Berar Weights and Measures of Capacity Act (No. II of 1928). A landmark in the history of weights and measures was, however, made with the introduction of the Madhya Pradesh Weights and Measures (Enforcement) Act, in 1959. Accordingly, the provisions of this new Act in respect of 'unit of mass' (metric weights) were made applicable in the District from the 1st April, 1961, and made compulsory from the 1st April, 1962. In the same manner, metric measures of length were introduced from 1st April, 1961, and were made compulsory with effect from 1st October, 1962. The metric capacity measures, (conical and cylindrical data) were introduced with effect from 1st April, 1962, and their use was made compulsory on 1st April, 1963. Provisions of the Act in respect of volume and area were introduced from 1st October, 1962 with a transitionary period of six months whereafter both these units were made compulsory.

Adoption of Metric system

The main conversion is thus:

(a) The *seer* was replaced by the Kilogram.

(b) The *Yard* was replaced by the Metre.

(c) The *Seer* (liquid measure) was replaced by the Litre.

The use of all the old weights, measures, etc., has been stopped throughout the District. This has put an end to the variety of weights and measures adopted at different places and markets of the District. The majority of traders (except those of very interior places) are making all their transactions only in metric weights and measures. The switch-over to metric weights and measures has been smooth. The traders have understood the Act and Rules, and they produce all their weights and measures, etc., for the periodical re-verification and stamping, as and when due, to the concerning authorities.

CHAPTER VII

COMMUNICATIONS

Old time trade routes and Highways

There is a mention of a traffic route which traversed the central part of India during the Sunga period (184-72 B.C.) which touched Ujjain, Besnagar and Berhut and proceeded to Kausambi and Patliputra.[1] It can, therefore, be inferred that the route from Besnagar (modern Vidisha) to Berhut (near Satna) must have passed through Damoh District (via Sagar district).

An account of the road system in Damoh District, as it existed in the second half of nineteenth century is found in the Settlement Report of Damoh District for 1866. According to this report the District was not served with any metalled road. Consequently, during the rainy days no movement of vehicles was possible owing to the soil being black loam which becomes quite adhesive. The main roads that traversed the District according to the Settlement Report of 1866 were the following:—

1. The principal road of the District was the Sagar-Jabalpur road passing through the District for about 40 miles (64.374 km.) out of its total length of 110 miles. This road was partly bridged except the larger streams, which were all fordable during the open season.

2. The next important road was the one which connected Damoh with Jukehi on the Mirzapur road. Commencing from the town of Damoh itself it traversed some 30 miles (48.28 km.) of Damoh District. This was the other route from Sagar to Mirzapur via Jabalpur.

3. The third important road which deserves separate mention was the road from Damoh towards Nagod via Hatta. It was by this Hatta-Gaisabad road that all foreign goods from Mirzapur and northern parts of India were imported. This road was one of the important transit roads between Rajputana and Bundelkhand for transacting business of salt by Banjaras of Rajputana and for exporting surplus cotton, *ghee*, wheat, rice, gram, hides, etc., of the region. However, on the abolition of the salt customs line in 1874, and the introduction of the system of levying

1. Cambridge History of India, Vol. I, p. 466.

duty at the place of manufacture, the salt trade ceased, and consequently the importance of this road decreased considerably.

Among the other roads in the District was one in the south traversing the entire length of the jungle area of Tejgarh and running down to the Narmada valley. By this route a great deal of grain found its way into Bundelkhand. The other was a direct road from Rehli in Sagar to Patan in Jabalpur which was a much shorter route than via Damoh; but it was of very little use owing to the forested nature of the region.

It can be gathered from the above description that at the time of the Settlement of 1863 Damoh was more or less land-locked and the traffic it could transact forced its way laboriously across the border on pack-bullocks. The road from Damoh joining the Jabalpur-Mirzapur road at Jukehi was the only important road in the District.

The opening of the railway-line concentrated the trade of the District at Damoh railway station. Consequently, of the three old trunk routes, namely, the Damoh-Sagar, Damoh-Jukehi and Damoh-Jabalpur roads, the first two had greatly decreased in importance and were gradually abandoned for traffic.

Road Transport

The Damoh-Jabalpur road had for many years remained the most important road. It was made a metalled road as early as 1888, its length in the District being 59.546 km. The important roads connecting this main trunk road were Tejgarh-Abhana road, Tendukheda-Tejgarh track, Taradehi-Damoh track, and Damoh-Jujhar road.

The other important routes in the District were Damoh-Hatta-Gaisabad and Damoh-Narsinghpur-Batiagarh roads. The Damoh-Hatta-Gaisabad road was metalled as far as Hatta.

In the opening decade of the present century, the District was served with a total length of metalled roads of 62 miles and unmetalled roads of 113 miles.

Since then the communication system of the District had shown much improvement, as indicated in the Settlement Report of 1908-13.

"Both by road and rail the district is usually well served, enormous improvement in communication having been made in the 20 years which have elapsed since the last Settlement. In January 1899 the Bina-Katni branch of the Great Indian Peninsula Railway was opend. The line passes through the centre of the district from west to east: three stations fall in the open wheat country and three in the hilly tract. Me-

talled roads now spread fanwise from headquarters, north-east to Hatta, north-west to Batiagarh, west to the Saugor border, south to Taradehi and south east to the boundary of Jabbulpore district Four out of these five roads bring the confines of the district into touch with the capital, the roads to Taradehi and Batiagarh are, for nearly all their course, new, and the old road to Hatta is being annually improved by bridges. As late as 1907, Tejgarh was inaccessible to touring officers from Damoh in wet weather, except by elephant, while the large village of Tendukhera 16 miles further south, which had 12 carts in 1907, has now 31. The total length of metalled roads has increasad since Settlement from 62 miles to 159 miles."[1]

During the period between the two World Wars road construction activities in the District were undertaken as 'famine programmes'. A considerable amount was spent on road-building programme during the years between 1928 and 1930. At the dawn of Independence in 1947, thus, the District was served with 273.588 km. of Class I roads, and 177.028 km. fair-weather roads.

Road Development in Plan period

In the post-Independence era, it has been recognised that transport is the king pin of economic development of a region, and to provide cheap, convenient and efficient means of communication for the masses and enterprising sectors is an essential prerequisite. In this context there was imperative need to 'open up' this District by a net-work of rail and road where there were inaccessible areas, unbridged river-crossways, weak bridges and culverts, severely limiting the utility of roads and impeding the movement of goods at a number of locations.

In recent years, therefore, there has been a remarkable growth and development of transport and communication facilities in the District. Since the District emerged as a separate unit only after 1956 and the independent division of Public Works Department started functioning in the District only after 1963-64, the continuous development of road construction can not be traced.

During the Second Five Year Plan period an amount of Rs. 17.34 lakhs was spent on the development of roads. The amount spent during the Third Five Year Plan was Rs. 28.56 lakhs. Major bridges over river Sunar on Hatta-Fatehpur-Rajpura road and river Bearma on Hatta-Gaisabad-Panna road, costing more than Rs. 10 lakhs each, were completed during the Third Five Year Plan period. Due to all these efforts, in 1968, the road length was 627.64 km., out of which 145.6 km. was black-topped, 402.336 km. metalled surface, and rest fair-weather roads. This gives a road intensity of only State standard. Damoh occupied 29th position in this respect amongst the districts of the State.

1. Damoh Settlement Report, 1908-13, para. 10.

The details of road length under different classifications for the years 1967-68 to 1971-72 are as under:—

Table No. VII—1

Classification of Roads

(In km.)

Category	Road length in different years				
	1967-68	1968-69	1969-70	1970-71	1971-72
National Highways	Nil	Nil	Nil	Nil	Nil
State Highways	140.60	188.60	188.60	188.70	188.80
Major District Roads	400.60	402.00	402.00	402.00	414.80
Other District Roads	130.50	130.50	130.50	164.50	299.50
Municipal Roads	34.47	34.47	34.47	34.47	34.47
Forest Roads	755.34	755.34	755.34	755.34	755.34

Source: Executive Engineer, P.W.D., Damoh.

State Highways

There are two State highways in the District, namely, (1) Jabalpur-Damoh-Batiagarh-Bukswaha road and (2) Damoh-Bandakpur-Katni road. These are metalled roads. The total length is 41.842 km. and 45.061 km., respectively.

Major District Roads

The total length of these roads in the District as on 31st March, 1972 was 414 km. The important roads falling under this category are the Damoh-Jabalpur Road (56.327 km.), Damoh-Sagar road (28.968 km.), Damoh-Hatta road (33.796 km.) and Tendukheda-Taradehi road (22.53 km.). The whole length of Damoh-Sagar and Damoh Jabalpur road is black-topped, while Damoh-Hatta road has 14.484 km. as black-topped. These roads have been provided with a number of bridges which are sufficient to keep the traffic going in rainy season.

Other Minor District Roads

The other roads in the District have a total length of 299.10 km. as on 31st March, 1972. The important roads under this category are the following:—

1.	Abhana-Tendukheda-Patan	49.889	km.
2.	Damoh-Hindoria-Pat. ra	28.968	,,
4.	Bisti-Gaisabad	22.53	,,
4.	Patera-Sagoni	49.889	,,
5.	Hatta-Fatehpur-Rajpura	33.796	,,

Source: Executive Engineer, P.W.D., Damoh,

Municipal Roads

These roads had a total length of 34.37 km. as on 31st March, 1967. They are maintained by the municipal committees of Damoh and Hatta, with respective length of 17.702 km. and 4.828 km. Damoh Municipality had 3.218 km. of bituminous roads, 8.046 km. of unmetalled roads and 3.218 km. water-bound macadam. Hatta Municipality had 3.218 km. of unmetalled roads and 0.845 km. of concrete surface.

Forest Roads

These roads are mostly cart-tracks, all unmetalled, *cutcha*, and motorable only during the open season. Their length as on 31st March 1972 was 755.34 km.

Surface-wise Length of Roads

The Table below indicates the surface-wise length of roads for the years 1967-68 to 1971-72.

Table No. VII—2

Surfacewise length of roads

(in km.)

Surface	1967-68	1968-69	1969-70	1970-71	1971-72
1. Bituminous	140.30	159.20	167.30	196.40	210.70
2. Water-bound	402.90	409.30	401.20	407.10	469.50
3. Natural soil fair-weather roads (motorable)	130.50	152.60	152.60	151.30	221.50

Source: Executive Engineer, P.W.D., Damoh.

Under the scarcity Relief Programme construction of 101 road-works with a total target of 690 km. of *pucca* roads had been taken up. It was estimated that an expenditure of Rs. 3.76 crores was incurred upto March, 1968 and earth work of 690 km., boulder soiling of 560 km. and consolidation of 74 km was completed.

Scarcity Relief Works

Vehicles and Conveyances

Prior to the introduction of mechanised vehicles and conveyances, the District was served principally by carts in plain area, and by bullocks, buffaloes and ponies in the hilly areas. Two kinds of carts were used for traffic, one called *chhakra* and the other *rahrua*. The *chhakra* was the ordinary country cart having a wheel of 14 spokes with iron tyres. The *rahrua* cart was smaller and a more primitive one. Its wheels were either made in three pieces of solid wood joined by wooden spokes without tyres, or with felloes and four rough spokes. These carts were principally used for the carriage of timber and grass

and could travel along the roughest roads. In rural areas bullock-carts are still more economical and a convenient mode of conveyance, and much of the internal goods traffic of the District is still carried by them as many villages are away from the roads and inaccessible to other means of transport. In urban areas the internal goods traffic of grain-*mandies* are carried by bullock-carts. Horse-drawn carts or tongas are used for carrying passenger-traffic in the urban areas of the District. The number of horse-driven tongas in Damoh and Hatta municipal areas in 1966-67 was about 25.

Automobiles

The automobiles are the quickest and most comfortable means of transport. The table given below shows the number of different types of auto-vehicles in the District.

Table No. VII—3

Number of Auto Vehicles in the District

Year	Trucks	Buses	Cars	Scooters	Tempo	Others
1965-66	68	38	47	52	4	52
1970-71	94	42	88	127	8	71
1971-72	99	49	87	162	15	88
1972-73	101	49	92	174	15	97

Source: The Regional Transport Officer, Jabalpur.

Other Vehicles

The other popular means of conveyances in the urban and semi-urban areas are cycles and cycle-rickshaws. It was estimated that, in 1966-67, in Damoh and Hatta municipal areas there were about 900 cycles and about 73 cycle-rickshaws.

Public Transport

In Damoh District both the private and the State-owned public transport service ply side by side. Damoh is a sub-depot headquarters of the State Road Transport Corporation. The number of motor bus routes in the District was 22 in 1967.

By the motor-bus traffic the District is well connected directly with the important places of the State such as Bhopal, Jabalpur, Sagar, Chhatarpur, Panna, Khajuraho and Sanchi.

Railways

As stated earlier, in 1889 the Bina-Katni extension was opened to Sagar, and in 1895 the extension to Damoh and Katni was begun. The line was

opened as far as Damoh in March, 1898 and from Damoh to Katni in January, 1899.

The railway line passes almost through the centre of the District running parallel to the old Saugor-Damoh Road through Patharia and its continuation from Damoh through Bandakpur to Jukehi. The length of the line in the District is 69.202 km. and it has six stations at Patharia, Aslana, Damoh, Bandakpur, Ghatera and Sagoni. The railway thus serves the District fairly well, the boundary to the north being 61.155 km. distant from the line and that to the south 69.202 km. The southern border is, however, nearer to Jabalpur station than to Damoh. A project for a narrow-guage railway to connect Damoh with the Attara-Manikpur line through Hatta and Panna was entered in the famine programme of the District, but could not be constructed.

Rail-borne Traffic

Since the opening of Sagar-Katni line passing through Damoh in 1898, the trade of the District concentrated at Damoh station. The total bulk of exports by railways in the District was about 5 lakh maunds, valued at Rs. 18 lakhs in 1904. The corresponding figures for imports were 1.76 lakh maunds valued at Rs. 14 lakhs.

Though it is difficult to assess with precision the extent of rail-borne traffic of passengers and goods exclusively for the District, yet some idea can be had from the figures given below for the years from 1958-59 to 1962-63:—

Table No. VII—4

Rail-borne Traffic of Passengers and goods

Year	No. of passengers Carried	Transport of Goods quantity	Value (Rs.)
1958-59	5,53,248	23,152	49,77,880
1959-60	5,58,366	21,444	48,28,900
1960-61	6,48,586	33,577	72,19,055
1961-62	6,73,647	28,623	61,53,945
1962-63	7,39,429	19,235	43,27,875

Source: Divisional Superintendent, Railways, Jabalpur.

Water-ways, Ferries and Bridges

There are only two important rivers, the Sonar and the Bearma, which cover the entire length of the District from south to north and receive the water of the Bewas, the Copra, the Guraiya and other minor streams. At the extreme northern boundary, the Sonar takes a bend eastward and joins the Bearma which alone emerges out of the District. After a distance it is met by the Kain. None of these rivers is utilized for navigation purposes.

The details of places where the traffic is held up during the Monsoon are as under:—

Name of the road	Mileage where traffic held up	Present position
1. Damoh-Batiagarh	14th mile (Sonar river) (22.530 km.)	Ferry available
2. Damoh-Batiagarh	9th mile (Kopra river) (14.484 km.)	—do—
3. Carbakota-Pathoria	5th mile (Sonar river) (8.046 km.)	—do—
4. Palera-Barrat-Sagoni	7th mile (Bearma river) (11.265 km.)	—do—
5. Jabalpur-Damoh	52nd mile (Bearma river) (88.686 km.)	—do—
6. Abhana-Tendukheda-Patan	55th mile (Bearma river) (88.514 km.)	—do—
7. —do—	46th mile from Tendukheda (Near Tejgarh (76.030 km.)	—do—

Air Transport

There is no aerodrome or air-strip in the District.

Travel and Tourist Facilities

There are about eleven rest houses in the District. A detailed statment of travel and tourist facilities available in the District has been given in the Appendix.

Posts Telegraphs and Telephones

Information regarding the early history and progress of the postal system in the District is rather scanty. In the nineteenth century, the postal system was started with Act XVII of 1837, which was later replaced by Act XVII of 1854. The main purpose of this Act was to provide the means of communication between the District headquarters and other important places in the interior of the District. The District Post Office was situated at the headquarters of the police station and at the *Sadar* station. The mail between the *Sadar* station and the police station was carried to the interior by the dak runners. When the public demand grew, post-offices (under the District Post system) were established in large towns and in the interior of the District. The Deputy Commissioner was in overall charge of the District Post while a senior police officer posted at the District headquarters functioned as Inspector of District Post-Offices. The system of affixing postal stamps was also started in 1862.

Present Working and Set-up

At the end of March, 1966, there were 103 post-offices existing in the District, comprising 6 sub-offices, 98 branch offices and 4 combined Posts and

Telegraph offices. Both postal and Savings bank transactions are carried out in most of the sub-offices and branch offices in the District.

Telephones

Telephone facilities are available only at Damoh town in the District. The total number of telephone connections installed in the District was 100 at the end of March, 1966.

Radio-Sets

The number of radio licences issued in the District is on the increase. In 1957-58, there were only 835 radio-sets in the District, while the number increased two-fold, i.e., to 1709 by the end of March, 1962. There is no radio station in the District.

Organisation of Owners and Employees in the Field of Transport and Communication

There is one trade union known as 'Rashtriya Motor Kamgar Sangh' in Damoh. It was registered in 1958, with a total membership of 51.

CHAPTER VIII

MISCELLANEOUS OCCUPATIONS

The extent of working population of the District dependent for their livelihood so far as main sectors of economy like agriculture, industry, trade and commerce, communication, etc., are concerned, together accounted for about 89.4 per cent of the working-force, according to Census 1961. Of these 1,39,452 or 67.4 per cent of the total "workers" were engaged in sectors relating to cultivation and agricultural labour, and 67,424 or 32.6 per cent in sectors relating to industry, mining, construction, commerce, transport and other services. The last named occupation, dealt with in this Chapter, engaged 21,806 or 10.6 per cent of the total "workers" as compared to 6.5 per cent in Madhya Pradesh as a whole.

Other Services

In the context of participation size, this group of economic activities is third in importance in the District. In between tahsils, Damoh with 10.9 per cent of its working-force in this category showed a slight edge over Hatta, which had 9.9 per cent of its working population in this sector of economic activity. Of all the categories of "workers", 'other services' claimed the highest sex-ratio, i.e., 774 rising to 940 in rural and receding to 300 in urban areas of the District. This phenomenon distinguished the District not only from the State as a whole but also from Jabalpur Division, where it is very low.

In the absence of any intensive survey of the conditions and extent of persons presently engaged in various miscellaneous occupations in the District, the available occupational statistics as emanating from the decennial censuses have to be utilized. However, a strict comparison of the census data is also fraught with the danger of misleading conclusions on account of changes in classification and coverage of different occupations.

The last decade of 1951-61 has been an eventful one, characterised by the adoption of planning as a creed for economic development. It resulted in the mobilisation of resources at all stages and sectors of economy. With this increased the dimensions of services and occupations during the last decade. In the following pages this has been reviewed in the administrative services, teaching and health services, and in other miscellaneous occupations.

Public Administration

With the assumption of additional responsibilities of a developing economy, wherein the administration is called upon to shoulder the colossal task of executing the Plans of a Welfare State, there has been an appreciable spurt in the percentage of population engaged in this public service. New departments have emerged, which have offered enlarged opportunities for employment to a number of administrative personnel.

According to 1961 Census, a total of 2,373 persons were engaged in public services in the District, of which 1,228 or 51.7 per cent were in the services in administrative departments of the State Government. The persons in police, and in the administrative department and offices of quasi-Government organisations, municipalities, local boards, etc., numbered 813 or 34.3 per cent, and 289 or 12.2 per cent, respectively, according to 1961 Census. Similarly, 43 or 1 8 per cent were employed in administrative departments and offices of Central Government.

D.A. and Other Relief Measures

Due to rising cost of living, the persons in public services are hard-pressed economically, being fixed income-earners. As among themselves, till recently, the Central Government employees appear to be economically better off than those under the State Government and local bodies. It was mainly owing to the facility of regular neutralization of rise in the cost of living available to the Central Government employees The same was not available to the State Government employees. However, the issue of granting relief to the State Government employees has been reviewed from time to time. Accordingly, the State Government decided to raise the dearness allowance with effect from the 1st of November 1966[1] covering Government employees upto the pay-range of 1,000 p.m., but excluding the work-charged employees. Additional interim relief to the low paid Government employees varying from Rs. five to Rs. seven was further granted from the 1st of February 1967, ie., to those getting salary upto Rs. 150.[2]

Again, owing to rising cost of living, which was accentuated by the two successive drought years, and mounting public pressure, the question of enhancing the rates of dearness allowance to the Government employees was considered by the Government in 1967. Consequently, the rates were brought at par with those of the Central Government with effect from 1st April, 1967 in respect of class III and IV employees, and from 1st August, 1967 in respect of gazetted officers of the State.[3] The Government credited one-third of this additional rise in dearness allowance in respect of class III and one-half in respect of

1. Government Order No. 2557-OR-1714-IV, R. II, dated the 2nd November, 1966.
2. Government Order No. 403-CR-205-IV, R. II/67, dated the 13th February, 1967,
3. Government Order No. 1466/IV,R.II/67, dated the 2nd July, 1967.

gazetted officers to the General Provident Fund accounts. The new rates now vary from Rs. 47 to Rs. 120, and cover the pay-range upto Rs. 2,250.

The facility of providing Government quarters to its employees whose nature of duties warrant the same is also extended to them. It is also provided that in lieu of Government quarters house-rent allowance may be given to the Government servants drawing pay upto Rs. 150. With effect from Ist November, 1966, the said benefit has been extended to the employees getting pay upto Rs. 190.[1]

The rates of house rent for the occupation of unfurnished Government quarters has also been lowered considerably in the case of Class III and IV employees of the State Government, irrespective of the pay and allowances they are drawing with effect from the 1st October, 1966.

Educational Benefits

The State Government have also conferred some educational benefits on the State employees of class III and IV categories for their children studying in the educational institutions in Madhya Pradesh. The benefit provides for exemption from payment of tuition fees upto the 1st Degree standard. Fifty per cent of the fees is also exempted in case of technical education. This benefit has been given from the 1st of October, 1966.[2]

Family Pension

As a measure of social security the State Government have recently announced a new scheme of Family Pension to its employees. It ensures the payment of liberal rates of pension for life to the widow/widower/children of the Government employees who have completed minimum one year of continuous service. The Scheme is applicable to all regular employees on pensionable establishments (temporary or permanent) who were in service on 17th August, 1966.[3] The details of the rates according to pay-ranges are given below.

Pay of Government Servants	Monthly pension of widow/widower/children.
1. Rs. 800 and above	Twelve per cent of the pay subject to a maximum of Rs. 150.
2. Rs. 200 and above but below Rs. 800	Fifteen per cent of the pay subject to a maximum of Rs. 96, and a minimum of Rs. 60.
3. Below Rs. 200.	Thirty per cent of the pay subject to the minimum of Rs. 20.

1. Government Order No. 2549-R-2077-IV-R-II, dated Ist November, 1966.
2. Government Order No. 1404-R-392-IV-R-I/66, dated the 20th Sept. 1966.
3. Ibid. No. 10/27-46/XX-I, dated the 29th September, 1966.

In addition to these benefits, the old-age pension and gratuity benefits are also being enjoyed by the Government employees after retirement. As for contribution in the General Provident Fund, new rules have been framed, namely, Madhya Pradesh General Provident Fund (Extension and Amendment) Rules, 1965,[1] which came into force with effect from the 1st of May, 1965. Accordingly, all Government servants (temporary or permanent) who have put in not less than one year of service and who are likely to continue in service are required to contribute to the General Provident Fund not less than three per cent of the pay upto Rs. 100 per month, and six per cent where it is more than Rs. 100 per month.

The State employees also enjoy the facility of reimbursement of expenses on account of medical treatment of their family. The scope of the term "family",[2] which was hitherto restricted to wife and children of the employee, has now been extended to include the parents, legally adopted children and step-children wholly dependent on him. The facility of obtaining loans at cheaper rates for the construction of residential accommodation and purchase of vehicle, also exists.

Learned Professions

Teachers

Among different occupations, a place of prime importance goes to the profession of teaching. After the establishment of National Government, vigorous steps were taken for the eradication of illiteracy amongst the masses. With this end in view, primary education was made compulsory, and a number of schools and colleges for higher education, technical and non-technical, were opened during the successive Plan periods. This has created a vast potential for the technical and non-technical teachers at different stages of education and, consequently, the general literacy percentage in the District has also advanced from 11.88 in 1951 to 18.5 in 1961. The literacy percentage among the males has always been higher than that among the females. While in 1951 it was 19.0, it rose to 28.9 in 1961. However, the female literacy percentage was as low as 4.6 in 1951 which improved to 7.6 in 1961.

According to 1961 Census, about 1,293 or 5.9 per cent of 'workers' in the category of 'other services' were earning their livelihood by being engaged in 'educational and scientific services'. In 1961, the persons engaged in services such as those rendered by the colleges, schools, and similar other institutions of non-technical type numbered 1,240 of whom 160 were females. Apart from these, 49 persons (48 males and one female) were engaged in services such as those rendered by the technical colleges, technical schools and similar technical

1. Notification No. 1027-R-1224-IV-R-II, dated 26th April, 1965.
2. ibid. No. 3352/XVII/Med (III) dated the 28th April, 1964.

and vocational institutions. Only four persons were enumerated to be working in other scientific services and research institutions.

Classified by occupation, there were 18 teachers of university level, 93 in the secondary schools, 1,058 in the middle and primary schools, and 2 in nursery and kindergarten schools in the District, in 1961. It appears that urban areas are better served so far as the higher education is concerned. Figures as available for the year 1966-67 showed a total of 1,249 teachers in the primary and middle schools and 302 teachers in the higher secondary schools.

The State Government have also been trying to improve the economic conditions of the persons in this profession. As such, from the 1st of October 1963, for the purposes of pay and allowances, the State Government have taken over the services of primary and middle school teachers who were under the local bodies. The teachers were given the benefit of the revised scales of pay, the basic of which now ranges between Rs. 85 and Rs. 95 as compared to Rs. 40 and Rs. 50 previously.

Medical Profession

With increased emphasis on public health and family planning programme in the successive Plans, medicine has assumed a very important place among the leading professions.

According to the Census of 1961, there were as many as 322 'physicians, surgeons and dentists'. These of course include not only physicians in allopathy, but also in *ayurveda*, homoeopathy and other systems of treatment. As for the availability of medical help through various systems of treatment, it can be said that, in 1961 the District had one physician (in allopathy, *ayurveda*, homoeopathy or in any other system of treatment) for 1,361 of population, ie., one for 1,518 persons in the rural areas and 797 in the urban. Urban areas of the District thus seem to be better served by medical profession of all descriptions. This District is better off in this respect than the State as a whole, which has one physician for every 3,416 population; i.e., one for 6,633 persons in rural and 874 in urban areas.

So far as physicians in allopathy are concerned, there were 35 (including surgeons) in the District according to the Census of 1961. Out of these six were working in the rural areas, while the rest, i.e., 29 were working in the urban areas of the District. Thus there is one physician in allopathy for 12,524 persons in the District, showing that the District is poorer in this respect than the State as a whole, which has one physician in allopathy for 10,110 population. As far as the availability of allopathic medical help is concerned the condition of the rural population of the District is far from satisfactory. They have one physician in allopathy for 63,762 persons.

The Census of 1961 records the presence of 250 *ayurvedic* physicians in the District. In respect of *ayurvedic* physicians, the rural population is in a happier position having 222 of the 250 in rural areas. The District thus has one physician for 1,753 persons; one for 1723 of the rural and 1,992 of the urban population. Thus, in respect of *ayurvedic* medical help, both rural and urban areas of the District are better than the State as a whole, where one physician for 8219, 11460, and 3040 persons, respectively, was recorded for the total, rural and urban population.

According to the Census of 1961, there were seven physicians in homoeopathy, of whom five were in urban areas. Of the thirty physicians of the unspecified type, only eight were in the urban areas of the District.

In addition to the physicians and surgeons in the District in 1961, there were 339 nurses, pharmacists, and other medical and health technicians—89 in the urban areas and the remaining in the rural areas. There were 19 nurses (5 in urban areas), 190 midwives and health visitors (9 in urban areas, the rural figures obviously including village women practising primitive midwifery), 29 nursing attendants and related workers (13 in urban areas), 27 pharmacists and pharmaceutical technicians (24 in urban areas), 30 vaccinators (21 in urban areas), 35 sanitary technicians (10 in urban areas) and three optometrists and opticians (all in urban areas).

Lawyers

The Census of 1961 records the presence of 43 persons (all males) in the District who rendered legal services. This number includes barristers, advocates, solicitors, *muktiars*, pleaders and *munshis*. When classified by occupation in 1961, the Judge Magistrates in the District numbered four, legal practitioners and advisers thirty-six, law assistants two and legal technicians one.

Persons in this profession, especially the new entrants, find it difficult to attract clientele. As reputation and personal skill are important in this profession, the income varies in a wide range. A long period of apprenticeship for the new entrants under some reputed lawyer, the time-lag before one establishes himself fully in the profession and the risk involved are some of the aspects which make this profession less attractive.

Engineers, Architects and Surveyors

The District, according to Census of 1961, had one architect, sixty-three civil engineers and overseers, one mechanical engineer, two electrical engineers, fourteen surveyors, and two others who belonged to the group of architects, engineers and surveyors (not elsewhere classified).

Apart from these, a number of professional, technical and related workers were engaged in various other occupations in 1961, which are broadly presented in the following table.[1]

Table No. VIII—1

Other Professional Workers

Occupation	No. of workers Persons	Males	Females
1. Chemists, Physicists, Geologists & other Physical Scientists	4	4	—
2. Biologists, Veterinarians, Agronomists & related workers	39	39	—
3. Social Scientists & related workers	39	35	4
4. Artists, writers & related workers	75	71	4
5. Other Professional, Technical and related workers such as Religious workers, Astrologers, Geographers, etc.	435	430	5

Personal Services

Almost equally numerous to workers in 'public service' are workers in 'personal service', contributing between one tenth and one-ninth to the working force in the category of 'other services'. Total number of workers in this category numbered 2,361 (1,354 males and 1,007 females). A large number of them (1,032) were engaged in services rendered to households such as domestic servants and cooks, followed by launderers and washermen who numbered one-third, barbers and hair-dressers about one-seventh and those working in hotels, etc., constituting about one-twelth of all workers in this category.

Laundry Services

The persons engaged in laundry services rendered by organisations and individuals, which includes all types of cleaning, dyeing, bleaching, dry cleaning, etc., numbered 774 in 1961, of whom 224 were males and 550 females. Of these, 138 were located in urban areas.

It may be seen that the number of females in this category is more than males. *Dhobins* sometimes render home-service also. Most of the laundries are carried on by the owners themselves without any outside assistance. However, in a few cases, members of the family are also taken as helpers.

In Hatta municipal area there was one laundry in 1962-63, employing two persons. The number increased to four by 1965-66, employing nine workers. In Damoh town there were, as reported in 1966, two laundries which were covered under the Shops and Establishment Act.

Apart from these occupations nine persons were also found to be engaged in services rendered by portrait and commercial photographic studios, and two in the service of households—as governess, tutor, private secretary, etc., in 1961.

1. District Census Handbook, Damoh District, 1964, pp. 27-28.

Hair Dressing and Other Services

The next important service is hair-dressing and related services rendered by barbers and hair-dressing saloons. In 1961 there were 354 persons engaged in these services, of whom 162 were enumerated in urban areas. Apart from their occupational importance, the barbers or *nais* carry distinct position in the social life of the District. In Hatta municipal area there were 4 hair-cutting saloons in 1960-61, engaging 7 workers. Their number rose to 5 in 1965-66 employing 15 workers. There were 16 hair-cutting saloons in Damoh town, covered under the Shops and Establishment Act as reported in 1966.

Hotels and Restaurants

The management of hotels, restaurants, and lodging and boarding houses is becoming a specialized occupation in urban areas. In rural areas also small shops providing light refreshments, tea, etc., are coming up near the communication centres and market places. However, hotels are still mainly a feature of urban life where they are a profitable investment. Therefore, with the increase in these establishments, the employment opportunities in this occupation are also increasing. According to 1961 Census, 190 persons in the District were engaged in this occupation, of whom 100 were males and 10 females. Out of this, 97 persons were working in the urban areas, of whom 87 were males and 10 females. As reported in 1966, there were 70 hotels which were covered under the Shops and Establishment Act 1958 in Damoh town.

Tailors, Cutters, Furriers, etc.

Though the urban elites have adopted the western dresses to a large extent, the traditional old types of dresses, namely, *dhoti kurta* and *bundi* are even now commonly worn in the rural areas. But in the villages which are in the vicinity of towns, one can see that *pyjama*, bush-shirts, trousers, etc., are becoming popular. This change in the fashion has given a fillip to the tailoring business. Now, in towns trailors keep shops with more than one machine and hire the workers on daily wages or on piece-rate. Usually piece-rate is preferred. In rural areas a tailor still goes from place to place to take measurement and to provide home-delivery of the stitched clothes. But in urban areas this practice is not common. According to 1961 Census, there were 1,013 persons doing the work of tailors, cutters, furriers, etc. Of these, 865 were males and 148 females. Out of these 1,013 persons 861 were working in the household industry and the rest, i.e., 152 persons in shops, etc.

Cycle Repairing

According to Census 1961, as many as 192 persons (one female) were engaged in this occupation in Damoh. Out of these 87 persons worked in the urban areas (this number includes a female also), and the rest in rural areas. In 1965-66, there were 38 shops of cycle repairing in Damoh town, which were covered under the Shops and Establishment Act. In Damoh Tahsil, in 1965-66. there were 41 shops, while Hatta Tahsil had 54. Usually the shop-owners are the self-employed

workers, but in a few cases helpers are also employed by them to cope up with the rush of repairing work. These cycle repairing shops are usually seen near the bus stands, railway stations, industrial places, offices, etc. Temporary shops are also established at the time of fairs and festivals.

Pan Shops

Pan-chewing has been an inherent part of rural and urban life in the District. In social relations, the offering of pan to the guest is a traditional custom not only among the Hindu population but also among Muslims and others. The road side pan shops are now a usual phenomenon of urban life. In Damoh with a population of 46,654 persons in 1961, nearly 46 such shops were located in 1965-66. These were regulated under the Shops and Establishment Act. In the District as a whole, 170 shops were functioning in 1965-66, of which 74 were in Damoh Tahsil and 96 in Hatta Tahsil. These shops are also usually run by the self-employed owners, but in a few busy shops, helper is also engaged sometimes.

This chapter, in most part, deals with figures under National Classification of occupations which are available only for the last census year of 1961. However, figures for later years for some of the related service groups under Industrial Classification are available and are given below.[1] These figures, it must be mentioned, do not compare strictly with the occupation-wise figures given earlier.

Table No. VIII-2

Services and their Strength of Employees

Services	End of March 1966	End of March 1971
Public Service in Police	311	—
Public Service in Central Government	3	—
Public Service in Quasi Government Organisations	391	382
Public Servic in State Government	603	1,178
Service in Technical Education	19	—
Educational Services Non technical	1,738	1,968
Public Health and Medical Services	119	555
Welfare Services	118	—
Community Services	218	others, 255
Kirana shops (paying Sales tax)	—	88
Cloth shops (paying Sales tax)	—	18

1. Employment Market Reports, Damoh.

CHAPTER IX

ECONOMIC TRENDS

Livelihood Pattern

Before the 1st of November 1956, the day on which the State was reorganized, Damoh has been part of Sagar District since 1931. Prior to 1931 Damoh had the same territorial jurisdiction as on the date of its reconstitution in 1956.

As it is, the non-comparability of different census data makes it difficult to discuss with any reasonable exactitude the changes in the pattern of livelihood over a period like a decade. This task has become further complicated by the merger of this District with Sagar from 1931 to 1956. Thus, it is the pattern of livelihood as available from the 1961 Census data, that is presented here.

Agricultural Sector

The population of "workers" in agriculture was about 67.4 per cent of the total "workers". Cultivators, which term includes persons who cultivate on their own account, whether on owned or unowned holdings, formed 52.0 per cent as against 15.4 per cent of the agricultural labourers.

The economic activities like forestry, fishing, hunting, live-stock, mining and quarrying, gardening, etc., employed 3.3 per cent of the total "workers" in the District. About one-third, i.e., 31.8 per cent of these "workers" were engaged in the single pursuit of "production and rearing of live-stock mainly for milk and animal power such as cow, buffalo, goat".[1]

Industrial Sector

Percentage of the total "workers" carrying on household industries was 13.7. After agriculture, this happened to be the next important economic activity in the District. By far the most important household industry absorbing very nearly two-thirds of the "workers" in this category is that of bidi-making. Proportion of workers in this household industry was 65.3 of the total "workers" in this category.

Manufacturing other than household industry provided livelihood to a fraction of the total "workers", i.e., 0.9 per cent. The District is backward in

1. District Census Handbook, 1961, p. LXXI.

respect of manufacturing industries of the registered factory type. Here again, about one-third of the "workers" in this category were in bidi manufacturing, i.e., in the bidi factories registered under the Factories Act, 1948. The District has no large-scale industry of any kind.

Construction activities provided livelihood to 0.6 per cent of the total "workers". Only 3 out of every 500 "workers" in the District were in the field of construction. Roughly half, i. e., 47·6 per cent of the "workers" in this category were engaged in the construction and maintenance of Government buildings, about one-third, i.e., 35 per cent in the construction and maintenance of roads and the remaining about one-sixth, i.e., 17.4 per cent in the construction and maintenance of waterways, water reservoirs, tanks, etc.

Commercial Sector

Trade and commerce provided livelihood to 2.5 per cent of the total "workers". Retail trade of all kinds engaged 89.3 per cent of the "workers" in this category; 7.9 per cent of the "workers" were in wholesale trade and 2.8 per cent in miscellaneous trade and commerce. Livelihood category of transport storage and communication engaged only 1.0 per cent of the total "workers" in the District. Services group provided livelihood to 10.6 per cent of the total "workers" in the District.

Total population of the District was 4,38,343 in 1961. Out of this number 2,06,876 were "workers" forming 47.19 per cent. Proportion of a worker and dependents was roughly 1:1. The percentage of rural workers to rural population was 49.13 while that of workers in urban areas to urban population was 33.92. The lower percentage in urban areas might be attributed to the higher age of entry into employment market in the towns, a necessary consequence among other things of the educational facilities and at the same time restricted scope for employment to women and children in urban occupations like industry, trade, commerce, etc. The proportion of "workers" to non-workers in urban areas was 1: 1.94 while in rural areas it was 1: 1.03. The proportion existing in rural areas shows that there are better opportunities for employment, mostly in agriculture. According to available provisional figures of 1971 Census the percentage of 'workers' to total population was 34.4, of which 75.9 per cent was in agricultural Sector and 24.1 per cent in others.

The salient feature of the pattern of livelihood that emerges from the data discussed above is one of dependence on agriculture, household industries and other services, which generally characterize the undeveloped condition of the economy.

Prices

Before Twentieth Century

The staple food-grain of the District is wheat. Rice is the second widly grown cereal, jowar coming next in order. Gram is the most important among various pulses, while linseed is foremost among oil seeds. In the decade 1891-1900, the lowest price of wheat was 17.6 seers a rupee in the year 1898. As against this the highest price, i.e., 7·5 seers a rupee was obtained in 1897. This was a famine year and except for jowar, the highest prices in the decade were recorded for rice and gram in this year besides wheat. Jowar and linseed prices, on the contrary, happened to be the highest in 1896, during the decade. After 1897, during the following two years, prices of all these foodgrains had fallen, but had again increased in 1900. The general rise in prices in the year was again due to famine conditions on account of the failure of monsoon in 1899 The combined outturn of both autumn and spring harvest was 43 per cent of the normal. Thus the very start of the present century was marked by the rising prices of foodgrains.

Beginning of the Twentieth Century

Taking the period from 1901 to 1910, the year 1908 again happened to be one of high prices for all foodgrains. In this year the price of wheat was 8.00 seers a rupee as against 11.93 seers in the previous year. Jowar was sold at 10.87 seers a rupee against 17.25 seers a rupee in 1907. Rise in the price of rice and linseed in 1908 was slight over that of the previous years, i e., from 7 81 seers a rupee in 1907 to 7.48 in 1908 in the case of rice and from 7.67 to 7.30 in the case of linseed. Price of gram in 1908 was 9.12 seers a rupee, against 11.78 seers a rupee in 1907 The year 1908 was described as a disastrous year. The failure of the harvest was occasioned directly by the premature cessation of the monsoon of 1907 Damoh was one of the districts in the northern half of the Central Provinces in which failure of crops was reported as most serious. During this decade prices of above mentioned foodgrains happened to be the lowest in 1904. In this year wheat was 16.58 seers a rupee, rice 19.74 seers, linseed 11.55 seers and gram 23.22 seers. Jowar, however, was at the lowest rate of 28 seers a rupee in 1903. "The season of 1903-04 was the best that the Provinces as a whole, had enjoyed".[1] In none of the years of the decade that followed the prices of foodgrains reached such a low level as in 1904.

First World War

The important event of the decade 1911-20 was the outbreak of the First World War in 1914. In the year preceding the outbreak of the War, i.e., in 1913, prices of wheat, jowar, rice linseed and gram were 12.12, 14.88, 7.27, 8.68 and 16.21 seers a rupee, respectively. In 1914, the prices of wheat, jowar and gram had risen, but those of rice and linseed had fallen. Fall in the price of rice was slight, while that

1. Census of India 1911, Central Provinces and Berar, Part I, p. 29.

of linseed was substantial. Rise in the price of wheat was from 12.12 seers to 9.14 seers a rupee and that of jowar from 14.88 to 13.70; but in the case of gram the rise was highest, i.e., from 16.21 seers a rupee in 1913 to 7.30 in 1914. The rise in the prices of foodgrains such as it was could not be attributed to the declaration of War, for in the years that followed the prices of foodgrains had actually fallen from the level that obtained in 1914. Thus, price of wheat in 1915, 1916 and 1917 were 9.42 seers, 11.11 seers and 10.10 seers, respectively. The prices of jowar in these three years were 14.60 seers, 20.81 seers and 19.52 seers a rupee. The price of rice had increased a little in 1915, i.e., from 7.79 seers a rupee in 1914 to 7.65 in 1915, but in the two subsequent years prices had fallen to 7.70 seers and 8.20 seers a rupee. There was a slight year to year rise in the prices of linseed, i.e., from 10.06 seers a rupee in 1914 to 8.80 in 1915, 8.28 in 1916 and 8.25 in 1917. The prices of gram on the contrary had fallen substantially in these War years. In 1914 the price of gram was 7.30 seers a rupee, but in 1915 and 1916 the prices was 11.70 seers and 14.11 seers a rupee, respectively. In 1917 there was a slight increase in the price of gram to 13.70 seers a rupee.

These trends in prices of foodgrains show that the War-time conditions did not affect the prices in the District in the sense that they were not at a higher level all along the War years due to increase in demand for War effort, etc. The War-time prices compare favourably with those obtaining during pre-War years. Fluctuation in prices appears to be more the result of year to year season and crop conditions, rather than the impact of War-time demand and supply position. This can be verified, for example, from the general condition of the crops as reported for the State as a whole in a particular year. The area under wheat and wheat-gram in the State fell to about eight per cent in 1913-14 over the previous year. The meteorological conditions were not generally favourable for wheat. Gram suffered more than wheat from lack of rain, cloudy weather, insects and hail. These conditions of the season and crop though not wholly applicable to the conditions in the District, could not but have affected the prices of these two foodgrains, Damoh being a part of the integrated State. It becomes, thus, obvious as to why the prices of gram in 1914 increased considerably over the price of previous year as compared to the price of wheat. What apparently appears to be the cause of rise in the wheat and gram prices cannot be stated regarding the fall in the prices of linseed in 1914. The area under linseed in the State fell in 1913-14 and weather conditions were also not favourable. The yield of crop was also lower in this year than in the previous and yet there was a fall in the price of linseed in 1914 over 1913.

The price movements in a particular area like a district cannot, therefore, be attributed as being wholly due either to the season and crop conditions or other particular circumstances like War, etc., as they are the

Between the two Wars

result of the combination of all the various factors exercising their influence. In 1919 the War came to an end and, with the cessation of War-time demand, the prices of foodgrains should have come down crashing. On the contrary, in this year there was a general increase in the prices. The reason, of course, was an extensive damage caused in 1917-18 due to excessive rain during the monsoon and its absence during winter months. In the next season after September, rains ceased abruptly resulting in widespread famine conditions. Then, there was an outbreak of influenza which had reduced the earning power of labour classes and the resisting power of agricultural classes. Distress was thus aggravated. Because of these conditions prices increased sharply in 1918 and skyrocketed in 1919. The prices in 1919 were the highest ever obtained right from 1891, inspite of the wide-spread famine conditions in the years like 1897, 1900 and 1908. Price of wheat in 1919 was 6.58 seers, jowar 6.58, rice 4.08, linseed 8.60 and gram 6.58 seers a rupee. In the following two years there was a general decline in the prices except for wheat in 1921, the price of which increased even above the 1919 level being 5.63 seers a rupee against 5.88 seers and 6.63 seers a rupee in 1919 and 1920, respectively.

In the decade 1921-30 the lowest price of wheat obtained was 12.32 seers a rupee in 1923. The lowest price of jowar during this period was in 1922, i.e., 16.20 seers a rupee. Rice and linseed prices were lowest in 1929, i.e., 7.50 and 8.25 seers a rupee, respectively, while gram was lowest in 1924, selling 13.75 seers a rupee. Generally the prices during the decade 1921-30 were on a higher level than those in the previous decade. This trend in prices, however, changed from 1931. The prices of all foodgrains registered a considerable fall in 1931 as compared to those in 1930. The price of wheat had fallen from 9.44 seers a rupee in 1930 to 13.74 in 1931, jowar from 14.41 to 29.32, rice from 6.78 to 11.39 and gram from 11.30 to 24.11. It is well known that the world-wide economic depression was the cause of the crashing down of prices everywhere. Unemployment was rife and there was no demand for goods and services for want of purchasing power. From 1931 to 1938 the prices remained at low level and were lifted up with the rumblings of the Second World War.

Second World War

In 1938, i.e., the year preceding the outbreak of the Second World War wheat was 16.19 seers, jowar 19.31 seers, rice 12.02 seers, linseed 9.44 seers and gram 19.20 seers a rupee in the District. The corresponding wholesale harvest prices of these foodgrains in 1938-39 were, wheat Rs. 2-6-0, jowar Rs. 1-8-0, rice Rs. 3-10-0, linseed Rs. 3-13-0 and gram Rs. 2-6-0 per maund. The changes in wholesale prices of these foodgrains during the Second World War period can be seen from the Table below.[1]

1. Statistics of Rainfall, Area, Production and Trade of Agricultural Commodities in Central Provinces, Vol. II, 1909-10 to 1946-47.

Table No. IX-1

Prices of Foodgrains

(In Rs. per maund)

Year	Wheat	Jowar	Rice	Linseed	Gram
1939 40	2-12-0	2-5-0	3-10-0	5-11-0	2-15-0
1940-41	3-3-0	1-8-0	4-7-0	—	—
1941-42	5-11-0	2-11-0	—	5-11-0	4-3-0
1942-43	9-2-0	6-6-0	10-0-0	9-2-0	8-3-0
1943-44	9-0-0	—	—	8-0-0	8-0-0
1944-45	9-0-0	8-0-0	13-5-0	10-8-0	6-8-0
1945-46	10-4-0	—	13-0 0	16-0-0	8-0 0

The figures in the Table indicate a continuously rising trend in prices all along the War years. The prices during the War period, however, were not the result of free market conditions. With the declaration of War in 1939, the prices registered an increase, which was mainly due to the speculative activities in the market and accumulation of stocks by merchants in the hope of future profits. This necessitated the introduction of control measures by the Government. These measures, including fixation of prices by the District Officers and prosecution of profiteers, had some dampening effect on rising prices in 1940 and in the beginning of 1941. But the end of War being not in sight, the prices rose steadily thereafter. In 1942 the price of wheat was fixed under rule 81 of the Defence of India Rules, and dealers in foodgrains were licensed. Government also undertook procurement operations. The Scheme of procurement was not successful as very little wheat arrived at the market in 1943. The Scheme of rationing rice and wheat was introduced. In spite of all these measures, with a poor wheat crop in 1944, prices were rising.

It was expected that with the end of the War the difficult food situation would ease, but prices of the foodgrains continued to rise and rationing of foodgrains in the District had to be continued. Towards the end of 1947 decontrol of foodgrains was introduced. This measure proved a failure and control measures were reimposed. The unfavourable season of 1948-49 necessitated an increase in the levy of rice and jowar from 40 to 60 per cent of grain purchased. Levy of rice was further raised to 75 per cent in August 1949. Percentage of procurement of jowar was, however, reduced to 40 in 1949, but wheat procurement at 60 per cent was continued. Unsatisfactory condition of jowar crop in 1950-51 necessitated an increase in its procurement price. District bans on the movement of wheat, jowar and rice were also imposed in 1950-51. In this year the average farm harvest price of wheat was Rs. 22.94 per maund as against Rs. 10.25 at the close of the War in 1945-46. Similarly, the price

of jowar was Rs. 16.12 per maund in 1950-51. So also the price of rice was Rs. 23.47 per maund against Rs. 13 in 1945-46, that of linseed Rs. 25.25 against Rs. 16 and of gram Rs. 16.12 against Rs. 8.

The year 1951-52 was the first year of the First Five Year Plan. Separate data regarding prices for Damoh District were not available for this period.

First and Second Plan

On the reorganization of the State in 1956, the District was separated from Sagar. Thus at the beginning of the Second Five Year Plan in 1956-57, harvest price of wheat in the District was Rs. 15.50 per maund. This was sufficiently lower than the rate that prevailed in 1950-51. In the next year, i.e. 1957-58 there was a further fall in the price of wheat to Rs. 13.70 per maund. By the year 1960-61 the price had declined to Rs. 11.85 per maund. During 1956-57 to 1960-61 the price of wheat was the highest in 1958-59, i.e. Rs. 18.87 per maund. Like wheat, the price of jowar was also lowest during the period in 1960-61, i.e. Rs. 8.40 and highest in 1958-59, i.e. Rs. 10.37 per maund. Prices of rice from 1958-59 to 1960-61 were rising steadily, but were lower all along these years as compared to the price in 1950-51. In 1960-61 the price of rice was Rs. 18.83 per maund as against Rs. 23.47 in 1950-51. Prices of linseed were also steadily rising from Rs. 20.08 per maund in 1957-58 to Rs. 22.54 per maund in 1960-61, but these prices were also lower than that obtained in 1950-51, i.e., Rs. 25.05 per maund. In the case of gram, however, the price was a little higher only in 1958-59, i.e. Rs. 16.16 per maund as against Rs. 16.12 per maund in 1950-51. In 1960-61 the price was much lower (Rs. 12.33 per maund) than that in 1950-51. If index number of food grain production for the State with base year 1952-53 is taken as guide, the production index in the year 1960-61 stood highest as compared to all the preceding years. The reason for the general easing of foodgrain prices in the District in 1960-61 may be the result of this overall condition in the State.

Third Plan

In 1961-62 prices of wheat and jowar in the District increased over those in 1960-61. Price of wheat had increased in spite of the increase in production from 81,200 tons in 1960-61 to 88,611 tons in 1961-62. As there was a considerable fall in the production of jowar in 1961-62 as compared to 1960-61, the rise in its price in 1961-62 over the previous year might be attributed to this factor. Production of rice, linseed and gram in 1961-62 was higher than in 1960-61. Prices of these three foodgrains in 1961-62 were lower than those in 1960-61. In 1962-63 price of wheat was Rs. 33.17, jowar Rs. 25.96, rice Rs. 54.26, linseed Rs. 52.11 and gram Rs. 35.50 per quintal. Prices of all these foodgrains in 1963-64 were higher. Except for jowar and rice, production of other foodgrains was lower in 1963-64, as compared to 1962-63. Production of wheat in 1963-64 was 51,144 tons as compared to 72,462 tons in 1962-63; the price of wheat in 1963-64 was Rs. 50.81 per quintal as against Rs. 33.17 per quintal in 1962-63. Production of linseed had dropped from 1,965 tons in 1962-63 to 1,765 tons in 1963-64. Increase in the price of linseed was from Rs. 52.11 per quintal in 1962-63 to Rs.

66.52 per quintal in 1963-64. There was a decline in the production of gram from 12,348 tons in 1962-63 to 10,224 tons in 1963-64, and rise in its price from Rs. 35.50 per quintal in 1962-63 to Rs. 50.18 per quintal in 1963-64. While the rise in prices of wheat, linseed, and gram might thus be attributed to fall in their production the reasons for rise in the prices of jowar and rice in spite of the increase in their production in the District have to be sought in various other factors besides supply and demand conditions that affect price levels. The prices further increased in 1964-65 and 1965-66. Wheat price in 1964-65 and 1965-66 was Rs. 68 and Rs. 90 per quintal, respectively. Prices of Jowar in these two years were Rs. 42 and Rs. 64, respectively. The price of rice was Rs. 85 per quintal in 1964-65. Position regarding rice (medium) in 1965-66 became critical. Prices of later years are given below.

Table No. IX-2

Prices of Foodgrains

(In Rs. per quintal)

Year	Wheat	Jowar	Rice	Linseed	Gram
1966-67	101 to 110	64 to 78	180 to 196	164 to 194	90 to 135
1967-68	142 to 155	52 to 115	210 to 240	150 to 175	98 to 130
1968-69	86 to 108	55 to 77	129 to 198	160 to 186	82 to 115
1969-70	97 to 118	54 to 77	109 to 150	158 to 183	86 to 120

Source.—Krishi Upaj Mandi, Damoh.

Wages

Before Twentieth Century

The monthly wage-rate of an able-bodied agricultural labourer which was Rs. 4-12-0 in 1891 increased to Rs. 5 per month in 1897, the year of famine. The rates of wages of mason, carpenter and blacksmith also increased in the same year to Rs. 12 per month from Rs. 11-10-0 per month in 1891. In 1896, the monthly rates of wages were Rs. 4 for agricultural labourer, Rs. 11 for mason and carpenter, and Rs. 10 for blacksmith. From this level the wage-rates of all workers increased in 1897 by Re. 1 per month for common agricultural labourer, mason and carpenter, and by Rs. 2 per month for a blacksmith. Sudden increase in the rates of wages of the magnitude of Re. 1 and 2 in those days brings out the intensity of famine conditions and its effect on wage-earners.

Beginning of the Twentieth Century

These increased rates of wages, i.e., Rs. 5 per month for agricultural labourer and Rs. 12 per month for skilled workers like mason, carpenter and blacksmith remained operative upto 1903. The years 1903 and 1904 were of low foodgrain prices generally as compared to the previous years. The low prices of foodgrains, however, affected the wage-rate of common agricultural labourer alone.

His monthly wage-rate came down to Rs. 4 in 1903 from Rs. 5 in the previous years. Monthly wage-rate of a mason remained unchanged, but there was a sudden increase in the rates of wages for a carpenter and a blacksmith. The increase at this time was by Rs. 3 per month in both categories of workers as against Re. 1 and Rs. 2, respectively, of the famine year of 1897. The rates of wages thus obtained in 1903, a year of general decline in the prices of foodgrains in the District, rules out the existence of any co-relation in the prices and wage-rates. The years 1907 and 1908 again happened to be famine years. In the first of these two years there was no change in the rates of wages, which were at the level obtained in 1903 all along the intervening years i.e., Rs. 4 per month for agricultural labourer, Rs. 12 per month for mason and Rs. 15 per month for carpenter and blacksmith. However, in 1908, the wage-rate of agricultural labourer registered an increase of Rs. 2 per month and that of a mason Rs. 3. There was no increase in the wage-rates of carpenter and blacksmith. Thus, in 1908 the gainers due to famine conditions were the agricultural labourer and mason only. The rates of wages for all skilled workers like mason, carpenter and blacksmith became equal, i.e., Rs. 15 per month and for agricultural labourer Rs. 6 per month. Changes in the rates of wages such as these could only be explained by local conditions in demand and supply of a particular type of labour at a particular time.

First World War

In 1913, the year before the outbreak of the First World War, the wage-rate of agricultural labourer ranged from Rs. 7-8-0 to Rs. 9 per month. For mason and carpenter the wage-rate ranged from Rs. 15 to Rs. 20, and for blacksmith from Rs. 20 to Rs. 30 per month. Variation in the rates of wages for agricultural labourers in 1914 and 1915 was from Rs. 5 to Rs. 6 per month. In respect of mason and carpenter there was no change in the wage-rate, while for blacksmith it ranged between Rs. 20 and 25 per month instead of Rs. 20 and 30 per month in the year before the War. In 1916, the rates of wages for all skilled workers were uniform, i.e., Rs. 15 to Rs. 22-8-0 per month. The wage-rate for agricultural labourer was Rs. 5-10-0 to Rs. 7-8-6 per month in that year. In 1917 and 1918, the latter of which was a year of influenza epidemic as also of scarcity conditions in foodgrains, there was a general downward shift in the rates of wages for all the above categories of workers. Rates for skilled workers were from Rs. 15 to Rs. 20 per month while for agricultural labourer the rate was Rs. 5 to Rs. 6 in 1917 and Rs. 6 to Rs. 7 in 1918.

Between the two Wars

The rates of wages for all categories of workers took a definite upward trend from 1920. In this year the agricultural labourer got Rs. 9-8-0 to Rs. 11-4-0 per month. Monthly rates of wages for mason and carpenter were from Rs. 30 to 45 per month and those of a blacksmith from Rs. 22-8-0 to Rs. 33 per month. There was no change in the rates of wages in 1921, but in 1922 there was a further increase in the wage-rate of agricultural labourer from Rs. 10 to Rs.

12 per month. The wage-rate of a blacksmith which was slightly lower than that of a mason and a carpenter in 1921, reached the level of Rs. 30 to 45 per month in 1922. By 1930 the rates of wages for different categories of workers were Rs. 6 to 12 per month for agricultural worker, Rs. 25 to 35 for mason, Rs. 30 to 45 for carpenter and Rs. 45 to 75 for blacksmith. As compared to the previous decade, wage-rates during the decade 1921-30 were generally higher for all the different categories of workers. Such was the trend in the level of prices as well.

In 1931 there was a general fall in the level of wages of all categories of workers. This was also an year of general fall in the prices of all foodgrains. The world-wide economic depression had brought down wages and prices. In 1931 the wage-rate of agricultural labourer ranged from Rs. 6 to 10 per month. The wage-rate of a mason came down to Rs. 15 to 30 per month as against the previous year's wage of Rs. 25 to 35 per month. Carpenter's wage came down from Rs. 30-45 to Rs. 25-45 and blacksmith's from Rs. 45-75 to Rs. 25-45. By 1936 the wage-rate of agricultural labourer was Rs. 3 to 5 per month which had no precedence right from the year 1891, if the minimum of Rs. 3 is considered. Mason's wage-rate was from Rs. 15 to 35, carpenter's from Rs. 20 to 25 and blacksmith's from Rs. 30 to 35 per month.

Second World War

In 1939 when the Second World War broke out there was a further deterioration in the rates of wages of skilled workers. The minimum for all categories of skilled workers was Rs. 15 per month, but maximum came down from Rs. 25 of the previous year to Rs. 22-8-0 in the case of mason and carpenter. The wage-rate of blacksmith came down from Rs. 30-35 in 1938 to Rs. 15-30 per month in 1939. In the War years 1940 and 1941 there was no change in the rates of wages, but the year 1942 was the beginning of an upward swing in respect of all wages. It may be noted that the year was also remarkable for rising prices of foodgrains. The rise in the rates of wages was nearly double in the case of agricultural labourer, carpenter and blacksmith. Increase in the wage-rate of mason was comparatively low. Thus, in 1942, agricultural labourer's wage-rates happened to be Rs. 6 to 8 per month, while that of carpenter and blacksmith were Rs. 30 to 40 per month. Wage-rates of mason, however, were from Rs. 20 to 25 per month. By 1944 the wage-rates of all the skilled workers reached a level of Rs. 30 to 60 per month or broadly Rs. 2 to 3 per day. Agricultural labourer got from Rs. 11-4-0 to Rs. 26-4-0 per month in that year.[1]

After the second World War, in 1946, the monthly wage-rates for common labourer varied from Rs. 22-8-0 to Rs. 45. The wage-rates of mason, carpenter and a worker in iron and hardware were Rs. 45 to 90 per

1. Note.—Hereafter the series of monthly rural wages are not available and hence monthly urban series are used.

After the War month. These rates were for the urban area, i.e., Damoh. Pre-war (i.e., in 1938) wage-rates were Rs. 6 to 10 per month for common labourer, Rs. 15 to 22 per month for mason and carpenter and Rs. 15 to 30 per month for a worker in iron and hardware. This shows that increase in the minimum and maximum rates of wages was more than three to four times in the case of all categories of workers even after the War. In 1950 the wage-rates for mason remained the same as in 1946, i.e. Rs. 45 to 90 per month. For all other categories of workers there was increase in the rates of wages. Common labourer's wage-rates had increased to Rs. 30 to 45 per month, while a carpenter and a worker in iron and hardware got Rs. 90 to 120 per month. From 1951 to 1955 the rates of wages[1] for above categories of workers were as given below.[2]

Table No. IX-3

Wages of Common and Skilled Workers

(In Rs. per month)

Year	Common Labourer	Mason	Carpenter	Worker in Iron and Hardware
1	2	3	4	5
1951	26-4-0	60-00	105-00	90-0-0
	to	to	to	to
	45-0-0	90 00		120-0-0
1952	37-0-0	60 0-0	70-0-0	80-0-0
	to	to	to	to
	60-0-0	105-0-0	105-0-0	120-0-0
1953	22-8-0	60-0-0	60-0-0	60-0-0
	to	to	to	to
	60-0-0	105-0-0	105-0-0	120-0-0
1954	30-0-0	60-0-0	60-0-0	60-0-0
	to	to	to	to
	60-0-0	105-0-0	105-0-0	120-0-0
1955	30-0-0	60-0-0	60-0-0	60-0-0
	to	to	to	to
	60-0-0	105-0-0	105-0-0	120-0-0

The rising trend in wages from about Rs. 2 to Rs. 4 per day for common labourer and skilled worker, respectively, may be observed from the Table given above.

The rate of wages for agricultural labourer in 1959-60 was Rs. 1.50 per day. For carpenter and blacksmith the rates were Rs. 3.50 and Rs. 3, respectively. The rate of Rs. 1.50 for agricultural labourer remained unchanged upto 1965-66. In 1966-67 there was a further rise in that rate by 0.50 paise,

1. Note.—Hereafter monthly urban series of wages are not available.
2. Statement of Rural and Urban Wages prevailing in the Central Provinces and Berar, for the years 1937 to 1955.

making it Rs. 2 per day. Carpenter's wage-rate remained unchanged at Rs. 3.50 per day upto 1961-62. This rate had increased by Re. 1 from 1962-63, i.e., Rs. 4.50 per day and remained at that level upto 1964-65. The rate increased to Rs. 5 per day in 1965-66 and was the same in 1966-67. Blacksmith's wage-rate changed from Rs. 3 to 3.50 per day in 1961-62. It remained at that level upto 1964-65. In 1965-66 the wage-rate of a blacksmith was Rs. 4 and it increased to Rs. 5 per day in 1966-67.

The position regarding wages had changed but little in the following years. By 1971, the wages for a common labourer were Rs. 2.50 for a male and Rs. 2.00 for a female per day, respectively. Wages for mason and blacksmith were Rs. 5.50 and Rs. 5.00 per day. Carpenters were divided into class I and II and were paid at the rate of Rs. 5.50 and Rs. 5.00 per day, respectively.

Standard of Living

Agricultural Class

The pattern of livelihood in the District as obtained in 1961 showed that 67.4 per cent of the total "workers" were dependent on agriculture. Of this, 52.0 per cent were cultivators and 15.4 per cent agricultural labourers. The higher percentage of cultivators as against labourers creates a sense of gratification that the majority in agriculture are rather well-to-do. But looking to the definition of "cultivator" adopted for Census purposes, the term besides including those who cultivate on their own account, whether on owned or unowned holdings, also includes unpaid work on family holdings. Thus, the term "cultivator" includes all the members in a family cultivating their owned or unowned holding—a reason why the proportion of cultivators was more than that of agricultural labourers. It is worth noting here that the percentage of households cultivating a holding below one acre was 4.1 of all cultivating households in the District. Households cultivating holding of the size more than one but below 2.5 acres formed 17.2 per cent of the total cultivating households. "Amalgamating these two bottom size classes, we are face to face with the distressing fact that more than one-fifth of the clutivating households in the district cultivate holdings of less than 2.5 acres which cannot yield even bare subsistence income to them".[1] This observation is pertinent not in connection with the topic of "standard of living" but to the "living conditions" of the cultivators who form a major part of the agricultural class. Further on, 20.5 per cent of the cultivating households were in the size group of 2.5 to 5.0 acres, i.e. cultivating holdings of 2.5 and more but below 5 acres. This was the maximum frequency of households in any particular size group of holdings. Thus, roughly two-fifths or 41.8 per cent of the cultivating households in the District held lands less than 5 acres each. These were clearly the cases of sub-marginal holdings. In fact, it was observed that except in the fertile tracts of *haveli*, even a holding of 7.5 acres could not be taken as an economic holding.

1. Damoh District Census Handbook, p. LXX.

The above facts are relevant to the subject-matter of "standard of living" as agriculture provides livelihood to 67.4 per cent of the total "workers" in the District, and barring 15.4 per cent of the agricultural labourers in whose case to apply the term "standard of living" would be a misnomer, they highlight the magnitude of the proportion of those living on bare subsistence in this class of livelihood.

Other Workers

Next to agriculture there was "household industry" providing livelihood to 13.7 per cent of the total "workers" in the District. By far the most important household industry absorbing nearly two-thirds of "workers" in the category was that of bidi-making. The rates of wages in this industry are fixed under the Madhya Pradesh Minimum Wages Fixation Act, 1962. For Damoh the wage-rate was Rs. 1.56 for rolling 1,000 bidis. The work of rolling bidis in households is taken as a part-time job and by their very nature part-time earnings usually go to makeup for deficiencies in the earnings for subsistence, and not to raise or maintain any "standard of living". The very objective of the fixation of minimum wages is to guarantee means for minimum subsistence and not the standard of living conditions. Thus, majority in this class as well could not be said to have even an inkling as to what the "standard of living" is.

There are no manufacturing industries in the District worth the name. A bare 0.9 per cent of the total "workers" were engaged in the manufacturing industries in the District. About one-third of the "workers" in this livelihood category were again engaged in the manufacture of bidis. Industries connected with manufacture of foodstuff absorbed 15.3 per cent of the "workers". These were mostly engaged in the flour mills and oil mills. These industries again happen to be covered under minimum wages legislation. The minimum wages for unskilled workers in these industries were Rs. 1.50 per day for male and Rs. 1.25 for female. Skilled and semi-skilled workers' wages were Rs. 3.25 and Rs. 2.50 per day. Clerical worker got Rs. 60 per month. As compared to the workers in agriculture the condition of workers in these industries might be said to be comparatively better, in the sense they get all amenities of urban life and social security benefits provided under different Central and State Government enactments. But the District has no such large-scale factory establishments to which social security provisions might be applicable. However, with all these benefits and higher earnings living in urban areas is becoming ever costlier and the question as to whether an industrial worker in urban area enjoys any standard of living as compared to his counterpart in rural area, remains unanswered.

Traders

The persons in the livelihood category of trade and commerce might be said to be enjoying a certain standard of living, because these are days of price inflation and scarcities of commodities and not of trade depression.

In the service group all fixed income earners are being hard hit by the ever-rising cost of living and the problem of maintaining standards of living set according to different income levels in this group is being faced with grim realism.

Service Class

The immensity and complexity of the subject-matter of "standard of living" and total non-existence of any relevant data having a bearing on the topic makes a discussion on the topic subjective in its approach.

General Level of Employment

Details of the pattern of livelihood in the opening section of the Chapter highlighted dependence of the major portion of population on agriculture and allied activities for its livelihood. Dependence for livelihood does not, however, mean gainful employment. As a matter of fact, there are no opportunities of employment in other sectors of the economy and that is why people fall back upon agriculture for livelihood. This fact about the general agricultural economy of the country holds good in the case of agricultural economy of this District as well. There are no industries in the District worth the name. It is the bidi-making industry, which works on household as well as on factory basis, that offers employment to the highest number of workers. Household bidi-making is essentially a spare time industry, which hardly supplements the incomes of persons engaged either in agriculture or working on other seasonal occupations as labourers, etc. In the absence of any important industry there is no obvious shifting of population from agriculture to industry and the problem of shifting from one industry to another is altogether alien to the economic conditions in the District. Employment opportunities in the tertiary sector are much dependent upon the development of other two sectors in the economy. The 1961 Census data given in the earlier portion of this Chapter clearly bring out the low level of employment in industries, trade, commerce and services divisions in the District.

Employment Exchange

It was only from the 1st of June, 1964 that this District got a separate Employment Exchange Office. Prior to that, the District was under the jurisdiction of Jabalpur Employment Exchange.

In order to provide guidance and assistance to the rural population regarding employment opportunities and technical training in different fields an Employment Information and Assistance Bureau is also functioning in the District at Tendukheda under the administrative control of the Employment Exchange at Damoh.

The Scheme for collecting Employment Market Information, under the Employment Exchanges (Compulsory Notification of Vacancies) Act, 1959 was introduced in the month of March, 1965.

Working of the Employment Exchange from its inception in 1964 to 1969 may be seen from the figures regarding number of registrations, placings and number on Live Register, as given below.[1]

Table No. IX-4

Working of the Employment Exchange

Year	No. of Registrations	Placings	No. on Live Register
1964	3,152	145	—
1965	2,812	258	—
1966	532	74	1,400 (as on 31st March 1966)
1967	3,434	531	—
1968	2,807	286	—
1969	2,837	144	1,572 (as on 31st March 1970)

Note:—1. Figures for 1964 are for the period June to December, 1964.
2. Figures for 1965 are for calendar year.
3. Figures for 1966 are for the period January to March, 1966.

National Planning and Community Development

Community Development Programme was initiated in this District with the establishment of a Development Block at Patharia in Damoh Tahsil on the 2nd of October, 1953. By the end of Second Five Year Plan, there were five Development Blocks in the District. The area, number of villages and population covered in these five Blocks were.—

Development Blocks

Table No. IX-5

Development Blocks (1950-60)

Name of Block	Date/Year of Establishment	No. of villages	Area in sq. km.	Population
1. Patharia	2-10-53	125	686.34	55,400
2. Batiagarh	1-4-54	143	621.59	38,998
3. Jabera	1-4-57	170	942.75	45,065
4. Tendukhera	1-4-58	171	686.34	43,110
5. Hatta	2-10-59	150	694.11	43,198

By the end of the Second Five Year Plan, therefore, an area of 3,631.13 sq. km. with a population of 225,771 was covered under different Block Development activities.

1. The Employment Exchange, Damoh.

Two more Blocks were established in the District after 1959 bringing the total number to seven. One of these was established at Damoh proper on the 1st of April, 1961 and the second at Patera in Hatta Tahsil on 2nd October, 1962. Damoh Block consisted of 222 villages with an area of 832.39 sq. km. and a population of 65,166, while Patera Block had 180 villages, an area of 675.98 sq. km. and a population of 46,512.

The Block Development activities were directed to the economic and social betterment of the rural population. Stress was, therefore, laid on improvement of agriculture, provision of educational facilities—especially adult education—health, sanitation and introduction of co-operative activities. Achievements in these different fields were as under:

Agriculture

Activities in this connection were directed mainly to the provision of improved seeds, distribution of chemical and other fertilizers, demonstration of better farming methods and provision of minor irrigation facilities. During Second Five Year Plan period in the five Development Blocks a total of 23,204.92 quintals of improved seeds and 4,792.46 quintals of chemical fertilizers were distributed. During the Third Five Year Plan period a total of 19.261 quintals of improved seeds and 15,701 quintals of chemical fertilizers were distributed. Distribution of seeds other than cereals was of the order of 1,599.66 quintals during the Third Five Year Plan period.

Quantity of chemical and other fertilizers distributed in 1961-62 was 1,369. 91 and 37.32 quintals, respectively. For the following year (1962-63) chemical fertilizers weighing 3,450.16 quintals and other fertilizers weighing 110.11 quintals were distributed.

Practical demonstration of modern farming methods have a definite role in the programme of agricultural improvement. Bearing this in mind Block Development authorities, during the Second Five Year Plan period organized a total of 5,941 agricultural demonstrations in the Block areas. For the Third Five Year Plan period the number of agricultural demonstrations was 3,743.

Irrigation

Irrigation facilities in the shape of construction of new wells and repairing of old ones provided during the Second Five Year Plan was of the order of 91 and 24 respectively. The number of new irrigation wells constructed during Third Five Year Plan period was 536. The wells repaired or renovated numbered 320. In addition, four tanks were constructed for irrigation purposes and one old tank repaired during the Third Plan period.

In this respect emphasis has been laid on provision of drinking water in the Block areas. A total of 72 new drinking water wells were constructed and

Public Health

44 old wells were repaired and renovated during the whole of the Second Plan period. In the Third Five Year Plan period 155 new wells were constructed and 87 old wells repaired for providing drinking water.

The number of Primary Health Centres with sub-centres in the Block areas was nine during Second Plan period. For the Third Plan period, the number of health centres opened was five while seven centres were already functioning. Besides these, 15 rural dispensaries were functioning in the Block areas during the Third Plan period. Construction of drains, etc., and some other activities were also undertaken in the Block areas towards the maintenance of sanitary conditions.

Education

Setting up of adult literacy centres and provision of reading-rooms and libraries were some of the important activities carried on in the Block areas in this connection. During Second Five Year Plan 85 literacy centres were started and 2,468 adults were made literate. During the Third Plan period the number of literacy centres started was 154. The number of adults made literate during the same period was 4,133.

Reading-rooms and libraries started were 176 for the Second Plan period while during the Third Plan period the number was 31. Ordinary and Basic type of schools functioning in the Block areas were 362 with an enrolment of 31,207.

Co-operation

In the fields of provision of credit, marketing of agricultural products, purchase of agricultural requirements and manufacture on cottage industry basis, co-operative activities are being taken up in the Block areas. The number of different types of co-operative societies set up during the Second Five Year Plan period was 228 in all the five Blocks then existing. During the Third Five Year Plan period the number of co-operative societies started was 304 out of which 302 were functioning.

Starting of Youth Clubs and organizing Youth Camps, Mahila Samitis and Women's Camps, Farmers' Unions, Balwadis and Recreation Centres were some of the activities undertaken towards social welfare of the rural communities in the Block areas.

The Government expenditure on Block Development activities during Second Plan period was Rs. 31.75 lakhs and people's contribution towards these was of the order of Rs. 5.51 lakhs. During the Third Plan period Government expenditure on block development activities was Rs. 18.98 lakhs while people's contribution was of the order of Rs. 2.20 lakhs.

As the normal and Five Year Plan development activities of different Government Departments and agencies are carried on side by side with the Block Development activities in the various fields in the areas covered under Block Development, it is difficult to assess separately the economic and social effects of the Block Development activities alone on the population covered. However, it may safely be said that activities in different spheres at Block level have stirred the rural masses into working for their social and economic betterment.

CHAPTER X

GENERAL ADMINISTRATION

After Independence the Collector has been vested with wide powers. He is responsible for the maintenance of law and order, revenue administration, social development activities and economic and social advancement in the District. Rightly has it been said that the Collector is the pivot of the District Administration.

Collectorate

The Collector of Damoh has six Deputy Collectors to assist him. Two of the Deputy Collectors are designated Sub-Divisional Officers, each in charge of the Sub-Divisions of Damoh and Hatta. They also work as *ex-officio* Chief Executive Officer of the respective Janapada Sabhas. The remaining four assist the Collector in the work relating to Law and Order, Development, Food and Civil Supplies, Election, Treasury and other branches of the Collectorate. The narrative on the organisational set-up of the Collectorate may be divided into three main groups, namely, (1) Land Revenue and Land Records, (ii) Law and Order and (iii) Development.

Land Revenue and Land Records

For the administration of the first group of subjects Damoh District is divided into two tahsils, each constituting a Sub-Division. Each Sub-Division is in charge of a Sub-Divisional Officer of the rank of a Deputy Collector, who is also the Sub-Divisional Magistrate. Each Sub-Divisional Officer is in charge of the Janapada Sabha of the tahsil, and is styled Chief Executive Officer while discharging duty pertaining thereto. There is one Tahsildar and one Additional Tahsildar posted in Damoh Tahsil, and one Tahsildar at Hatta Tahsil. Tahsildars are assisted by Naib Tahsildars, six at Damoh and three at Hatta. At the village level, the Revenue and Land Records work are carried on by the Patwari whose office in the past was hereditary. There are in all 215 Patwaris in the District. Supervising their work there are 13 Revenue Inspectors. Out of them eight are posted in Damoh tahsil and five in Hatta tahsil. The following table gives details of the distribution of work.

S. No.	Tahsil	No. of R. I. Circles	No. of Patwari Circles	No. of Villages
1.	Damoh	8	124	843
2.	Hatta	5	91	558
	Total	13	215	1401

At the district level a Superintendent of Land Records, assisted by two Assistant Superintendents of Land Records, supervises the work of Revenue Inspectors and Patwaris.

Law and Order

In the maintenance of law and order the Collector as District Magistrate is assisted by the magistracy and the Police. Since the separation of Judiciary from the Executive in 1962, the Deputy Collectors, Tahsildars and Naib-Tahsildars have no criminal jurisdiction. The criminal cases under Preventive Sections are, however, dealt with by the Additional District Magistrate, the Sub-Divisional Magistrates and other 1st Class Magistrates.

Development

As has been mentioned earlier, the Collector is assisted by a Deputy Collector in the work relating to the Development Section of the Collectorate. There are seven Development Blocks in the District, namely, Damoh, Tendukheda, Hatta, Batiagarh, Jabera, Patharia, and Patera. Prior to 1st January 1966, each Block was headed by a Block Development Officer, but the post has since been abolished and the charge has been given to the Co-ordinator, the seniormost Agricultural Extension Officer of the Block. Each Block is provided with a team of Extension Officers drawn from various departments including Agriculture, Veterinary, Industries, Public Health, Social Welfare and Education. Further down there are village-level workers, both men and women, known as Gram Sevakas and Gram Sevikas, respectively. Each Block is provided with two Gram Sevikas and ten Gram Sevakas. The statistical table below gives a detailed picture of each Block in the District.

S. No.	Name of Block	Area in sq. miles (sq. km.)	Population (1961)	No. of villages (Revenue)
	Damoh Tahsil			
1.	Damoh	357.59 (926.25)	76,900	264
2.	Patharia	265.00 (696.34)	63,225	149
3.	Jabera	364.00 (942.75)	45,065	208
4.	Tendukheda	265.00 (696.34)	50,009	220
	Hatta Tahsil			
5.	Hatta	275.00 (712.24)	50,000	185 (33 deserted)
6.	Batiagarh	240.00 (621.59)	50,000	198
7.	Patera	261.00 (675.98)	45,204	180 (28 deserted)
Total	7 Blocks	2,027.59 (5,271.49)	380,403	1,404 (118 deserted)

In order to ensure effective participation of people in planning and execution of development programmes, a Block Advisory Committee is constituted for each Block, as in other districts of the State. Headed by the Collector, the Committee consists of local Members of Parliament, Members of the Legislative Assembly, Chairmen of the Janapada Sabhas, members of Gram Panchayats, etc. The Committee advises the formulation of working plan and development programmes of the Block, reviews the progress made, and promotes people's participation and co-operation, especially in such programmes as are oriented towards increased agricultural production.

Block Advisory Committee

The Collector is also associated with a number of other committees in the District, namely, District Advisory Committee, District Irrigation Committee. District Complaints Committee, District Ex-Servicemen Benevolent Fund Committee, District Rural Electrification Committee, etc. Among these is the District Advisory Committee, constituted in 1958, in pursuance of the policy of the Government. The Collector is the Chairman of the Committee which consists of several non-officials such as local Members of Legislative Assembly, Members of Parliament, Chairmen of Janapada Sabhas, etc., as members. Problems purely of local importance and Plan Scheme of the District are discussed by this Committee. The functions of the Committee are advisory in nature.

Other Committees

Statutory Powers of Collector

The Collector is also vested with statutory powers under Excise Act of 1915 amended in 1958 to implement the Excise and Prohibition Policy of the Government. For this purpose, the District is divided into three Excise circles, each administered by an Excise Sub-Inspector. The Excise Sub-Inspectors investigate and inspect all excise matters and detect and prosecute the offenders under various Excise Acts. They work under the supervision of the District Excise Officer.

Excise

The control of the District Treasury and Sub-Treasuries is vested in the Collector. A Deputy Collector functions as Treasury Officer of the District Treasury at Damoh, while a Sub-Treasury at Hatta is in charge of a Sub-Treasury Officer.

Treasury

The Collector is also charged with authority under Registration Act under which he is to register documents mainly pertaining to immovable properties. In this work he is assisted by the headquarters Sub-Divisional Officer, who functions as *ex-officio* District Registrar. In addition, there are two Sub-Registration Offices located at Damoh and Hatta, each in charge of a Sub-Registrar. However, the office of the Sub-Registrar, Damoh is amalgamated with the Office of the District Registrar, Damoh. The headquarters Sub-Registrar has been empowered to perform the

District Registrar

duties of the District Registrar under Section 30 (1) of the Indian Registration Act, 1908. Again, with effect from 1st January 1967, the Sub-Divisional Officer of each Sub-Division has been delegated with the powers of the District Registrar. The Inspector General of Registration, Madhya Pradesh, Gwalior is the controlling officer of the Registration Offices.

The Collector is also assigned the work relating to many other miscellaneous subjects, such as elections, food and civil supplies, agriculture, welfare of Scheduled Tribes, Scheduled Castes and Other Backward Classes, consolidation of land, etc. In the work relating to consoli ation of land, a Consolidation Officer is working independently. In this work he is assisted by 2 Assistant Superintendents of Land Records, 30 Revenue Inspectors and usual staff. On the application or written consent of two thirds the number of *Bhooswami* land-holders of a village and on the approval of the Colletor, the work of consolidation is carried out and a fee, at the rate of 17 paise per acre, is charged. The Scheme was introduced in the District in 1962-63.

Food and Civil Supply

In the work relating to food and civil supplies, there is a separate Food and Civil Supplies Office in the District, located in the Collectorate. But, no independent Food and Civil Supplies Officer is provided. One of the Deputy Collectors is placed in this charge. He is assisted in the work by one Assistant Food Officer, four Food and Civil Supplies Inspectors, one Assistant Inspector, one Store-keeper and the usual subordinate staff. The sanctioned strength of Inspectors and Assistant Inspectors in the District is eight and two, respectively.

For the work relating to diversion of land, there is a Diversion Officer designated as Officer on special Duty (Superintendent of Land Records, Diversion Office). His office was established in 1961 and he works under the control of the Director of Land Records, Gwalior. In his work he is assisted by two Revenue Inspectors and the usual staff. The Officer on Special Duty fixes the Land Revenue on land which is diverted according to rates approved by the Government; and final orders are passed by the Sub-Divisional Officer. Lately, the rates are being approved by the Collector in non-urban areas During the six years ending 31st March, 1967 the office assessed revenue on diverted area of 71.60 acres and placed the demands of Rs 18,000 as Land Revenue, Rs. 6,986 as premium and Rs. 6,378 as penalty.

The Collector works as the chief co-ordinating authority of State Government at district level. In order to strengthen his position as the Chief Administrator of the District, the State Government, in 1965, conferred upon him various powers. The Collector has been authorised to issue instructions to any District Officer, excepting those of Judiciary, Labour and Sales Tax, almost of mandatory nature. But in the event of the District Officer concerned feeling that the instructions issued are either wrong or impracticable, he could refer the matter to the Commissioner of the Division, the Commissioner having

been authorised to take a final decision in consultation with the Head of the Department concerned. Besides the supervisory powers, the Collector has also been empowered to inspect the aforesaid District Offices.

Further, every important scheme to be implemented in the District has to be brought to the notice of the Collector, so that he could keep an eye on the work being done.

Other District Level Offices

The following list of other district level officers, who are administratively under the control of their own Heads of Departments, gives an idea of the different departments of the State Government functioning in the District.—

1. Additional District and Sessions Judge, Damoh
2. Superintendent of Police, Damoh
3. Civil Surgeon, Damoh
4. Divisional Forest Officer, Damoh
5. Working Scheme Officer, Forests, Damoh
6. Executive Engineer, P.W.D. (B & R) Damoh
7. Executive Engineer, P.W.D. (Irrigation) Damoh
8. Company Commandant, Home Guards, Damoh
9. Superintendent of Jail, Damoh
10. Assistant Engineer, Public Health Engineering Damoh
11. Assistant Engineer, Madhya Pradesh Electricity Board, Damoh
12. Treasury Officer, Damoh
13. District Excise Officer, Damoh
14. District Panchayats and Welfare Officer, Damoh
15. District Education Officer, Damoh
16. District Agriculture Officer, Damoh
17. Assistant Soil Conservation Officer, Damoh
18. Assistant Soil Conservation Officer, Hatta
19. District Live Stock Officer, Damoh
20. Assistant Registrar, Co-operative Societies, Damoh
21. Employment Officer, Damoh
22. Superintendent, Land Records, Damoh
23. Consolidation Officer, Damoh
24. Diversion Officer, Damoh
25. District Tribal Welfare Assistant, Damoh
26. Public Relation Assistant, Damoh
27. Assistant Sales Tax Officer, Damoh

28. Inspector, Weights and Measures, Damoh
29. Inspector, Weights and Measures, Hatta
30. Assistant Fishery Officer, Damoh
31. Inspector of Industries, Damoh

Union Government Offices

The following are some of the offices of the Government of India located at Damoh. The organisational set-up of each is briefly as follows.

Office of the Inspector of Central Excise

The whole of Damoh District is under the charge of an Inspector of Central Excise, Damoh, with headquarters at Damoh. The Central Excise work in the District concerns with excise on tobacco, oil and soap, and implementation of Gold Control Rules. The functions of the Officer are to collect Central Excise duty on various excisable commodities and prevention of leakage of revenue. The Inspector of Central Excise is assisted by one Sub-Inspector and two sepoys. Damoh Range Office is under the overall control of Superintendent, Central Excise, Sagar, who in his turn is subordinate to the Collector, Central Excise, Nagpur.

Railways

Damoh station is managed by a Station Master. He is responsible for the smooth and safe running of trains and the efficient handling of traffic at the station. Administratively, he is under the control of the Divisional Superintendent, Central Railways, with headquarters at Jabalpur. The Station Master in his work is assisted by Assistant Station Masters, Sub-Assistant Station Masters, Goods Clerks, Parcel Clerks, Booking Clerks, Ticket Collectors, etc. A loco-shed under the charge of a Loco Foreman is also located at Damoh. The Loco-shed looks after 22 engines running between Bina and Katni.

Damoh is also the headquarters of Inspectors of different branches, namely, Permanent Way Inspector, Transportation Inspector, Locomotive Inspector, Signal Inspector, Travelling Ticket Inspector, Welfare Inspector, etc., with varying jurisdictions.

A Railway Dispensary under the charge of an Assistant Medical Officer is also provided at Damoh. Other Railway Stations in the District are in charge of an Assistant Station Master each.

Telephone

To provide tele-communication facilities to public, a Telephone Exchange was installed in Damoh in 1954. The Telephone Inspector in charge of the Exchange is administratively under the control of the Sub-Divisional Officer, Telegraphs, Katni. The Telephone Exchange has got five Trunk Circuits: (1) Damoh to Jabalpur (2) Damoh to Sagar (3) Damoh to Katni (4) Damoh to Patharia and (5) Damoh to Hatta.

The Phone Inspector in his work is assisted by 13 assistants. The number of Telephone connections was doubled during 1961-62. The total number of connections was 135 as in March, 1967.

Office of the Sub-Post Master, Damoh

The Sub-Post Master with his headquarters at Damoh is in charge of post offices at Damoh. With the help of two lower-selection grade clerks, nine clerks, two head postmen and seven postmen and usual class IV staff, he carries out the postal work at Damoh. He is directly subordinate to the Senior Superintendent, Post Offices, with headquarters at Bhopal, who in his turn is subordinate to the Post Master-General, Central Circle, Bhopal. Till March 1972, there were 21 branch Post offices and 25 Experimental Post Offices in the District.

Office of the Inspector of Post Offices

The Office of the Inspector of Post Offices is located at Damoh. The Inspector has jurisdiction over all the Branch Post Offices situated in the District as also over nine Branch Post Offices under Garhakota Sub-Office. He supervises the work of the Branch Post Masters. He has three Mail-Overseers and a number of Village Postmen under his control. His superior Officer is the Senior Superintendent of Post Offices, Bhopal. The next superior officer is the Post Master-General, Central Circle, Bhopal.

CHAPTER XI

REVENUE ADMINISTRATION

History of Land Revenue Administration

The pattern of land-revenue administration, as has emerged in Damoh District, owes its origin to the system adopted by British Government on its cession in 1818 after 90 years of Maratha rule. Under the Maratha revenue system, as it obtained in Damoh, villages were farmed out to the highest bidder, and any rights or consideration which the headmen may have enjoyed in the past were almost entirely effaced. No legal status was given to tenants, and the older cultivators were only protected by custom which enjoined that as long as the annual rent demanded was paid their tenure should be hereditary and continuous. Rents were commonly collected from the ryots direct and when farming was practised very short leases were granted and the margin left to the lessee on the rental was never more than 20 per cent, generally being very much less than this. There were three instalments (giving origin, it is said, to the local term of *tahai* for rent which is still current), levied in July, October and February. The first was nominally due on the autumn crops of the year, but was levied four months before harvest; the last was due on the spring crops, but was levied two months before harvest. This system, which entailed the levy of revenue before the crops on which it was charged could be cut and sold, was reported to be largely responsible for the impoverishment of the country,

Maratha System

This system which was very similar to *ryotwari* system of assessment offered good security for default, as the crops were liable to seizure before they could be removed from the ground. But it made borrowing invariably necessary for payment, hence the great power and importance enjoyed by professional money-lenders in the economy of Damoh District. In those days, the money-lender was the man who actually paid the revenue, being given in return the right of recouping himself from the ryots. It would be difficult to imagine a more harmful policy that can undermine the recuperative power of a District and destroy its prosperity.

At the time of the cession in 1818, the land revenue of the District was about Rs. 3½ lakhs, exclusive of the Singrampur *pargana*, which was then attached to Jabalpur district. The earliest British settlements were made with the village headmen or farmers usually for triennial periods. The first settlement entailed a demand of Rs. 3,54 lakhs which was 27 per cent higher than the land

Earliest Settlement of 1818

revenue of the District as it stood before the Settlement of 1893-94. During the three years, half a lakh of rupees fell into irrecoverable arrears. The demand was then lowered to Rs. 3.04 lakhs which was collected with less difficulty. At the Third Settlement it was again raised to Rs. 3.24 lakhs, and large remissions had to be made, partly owing to bad seasons. The revenue dwindled through successive reductions till 1835 when the first long term settlement was made, the period being 20 years and revenue fixed Rs. 3.05 lakhs.

The British administration made a mistake, which they had made elsewhere also, of assessing lands too high and demanding an impossible revenue. This resulted in the impoverishment of the people and retardation of the progress of the country. The mistake, when it came to light, was condemned in the strongest terms. It was Robert Mertinns Bird, known as the father of land settlement in Northern India who pressed for the introduction of a long settlement in 1834. He submitted a vigorous report on the unhappy state of Saugor and Nerbudda Territories brought about by persistent attempts "to prop up by temporary expedients a revenue confessedly excessive". It was after the submission of this Report, and under the orders of the Indian Government that a long settlement for 20 years was concluded.

20 Years' Settlement of 1835

This 20 years' Settlement (1835) was, if any thing, more unfortunate than its predecessors. It is recorded that the landed property entirely lost its value, the *malguzars* throwing up their leases, and leaving large number of villages to be managed directly by or farmed to money-lenders. At the conclusion of the period in 1855, more than half the number of villages would have been thrown up had not general remissions been given, accompanied in some cases by promises to refund all sums paid in excess of the demand as revised at the new settlement. The people struggled on as best as they could. Various causes are assigned in the reports of those days for the difficulties experienced in the collection of land revenue. The real reason was probably the fall in prices in the absence of any demand for surplus produce consequent on a rigid collection of revenue in cash. Under the Marathas a considerable proportion of the revenue was seemingly assigned and collected in kind. And the District maintained two regiments of foot, half a regiment of cavalry and a battery of ten guns. With the British occupation all troops were withdrawn and the market for produce narrowed accordingly.

30 Years' settlement of 1855

The 20 Years' Settlement expired in 1855, but the succeeding 30 Years' Settlement was not completed till nine years later on account of the disturbed conditions created by the Great Uprising of 1857. Preparations for the ensuing Settlement had, of course, started in 1855, but all the compiled records and papers were destroyed during the fateful events of the Great Uprising. Work was started afresh in 1860 and was finally concluded in 1865-66, though the new assessment was enforced from 1863-64.

Great stress was laid on the preparation of accurate field maps and records in detail, which formed part of the scheme of Settlement. Concurrently with the field survey, a traverse survey on 4 inch scale was effected by professional agency, but the two surveys were independent of each other, and no use was made by the Settlement Department of the angulation on which the professional maps were based. This Settlement had the reputation of being the most accurate settlement effected at that time. The guide to assessment generally relied on was that called the soil-rate rental. This was obtained by multiplying the cultivated area in a village by a rent-rate which was assumed to represent its real annual rental value. How the average rates of Damoh tahsil were calculated is not clear, but for Hatta they were determined by a careful inquiry into a comparison of existing rents.

From the results of this inquiry, scales of average rates were drawn up. The inquiry was a difficult one, as land was leased by the *mani*, that is, according to its seed-capacity, and not according to any known measures of area, and as a rule holdings comprised soils of very different descriptions on which a lump rent was paid. Twenty-four *chaks* or groups were formed and the villages of each group were thrown into three classes, for each of which a scale of rates was fixed. The scale was a complicated one, as it included three rates for each soil according as it was embanked with a large bank, embanked with a small bank or unembanked. Six soils were distinguished, *kabar*, *mund*, *rathia*, *ratyan*, *patarua* and *bhatua*. Other guides followed were the 'plough' and 'produce' *jamas*. The produce *jama* was taken on one-sixth of the gross produce. The outturns were calculated at very low rates apparently deduced from the statements of the people of the return yielded by the harvest on the seed sown. The average produce of an acre of wheat in the best soil was set down at only 420 lbs. But the produce *jamas* were used only in the case of a few villages. In Damoh Tahsil the plough *jama* was calculated by taking the average area capable of being cultivated by one plough as 13 acres The cultivated area of the village was divided by this figure to arrive at the number of ploughs, and the product of the number of ploughs into one-sixth of the average value of the produce of 13 acres was the plough *jama*. Apparently the result should have been the same as that of the produce *jama* unless the value of the produce was differently calculated. But the results arrived at were different. In Hatta the total rental of a circle was divided by the total existing number of ploughs, the result giving the average rental of the land cultivated by one plough; this multiplied by the number of ploughs in the village gave the rental from ploughs, half of which was taken as the plough *jama*. The guide usually followed in assessment as stated earlier was the soil-rate rental, and the results given by other calculations were employed to check this and to modify uneven assessments.

Of the total area then occupied for cultivation, 16 per cent were in the hands of the *malguzars* as their homefarm or demesne, and 35 per cent held

by ryots who were left in the position of tenants-at-will. Cultivators holding 5 per cent of the area were made proprietors of their plots, and over 40 per cent tenant-right, either absolute occupancy or occupancy, were formally recognised. Proprietary rights were reserved by Government in over 4½ lakhs of acres or 29 per cent of the total area of the District. The bulk of this land later became Government forest. A leading feature in the proprietary right proceedings of 1863 was the endeavour to rectify the evils of past administration by reinstating in their villages *malguzars* of old standing, locally called *watandars*, who had been forced to give place to speculating farmers. In all, 254 of these *watandars* were restored and made recipients of proprietary status. But indebtedness contracted during the period of the farming settlements was feared responsible for much of the pecuniary embarrassment which existed even before the recent cycle of bad years.

Settlement of 1863

Regarding assessment, the Settlement Commissioner in his review of the Settlement Report (1863) stated that, 'owing to the moderation and evenness of the assessment, the District was fast recovering from the severe over taxation under which it had formerly suffered'. The revised revenue was fixed at Rs. 2.78 lakhs gross or Rs. 2.60 lakhs excluding assignments. It was equivalent to a reduction of 2.5 per cent on the revenue payable immediately before revision. The reduction was principally in Damoh tahsil. The reduction on the demand fixed at the 20 Years' Settlement was 9 per cent. The village assets amounted to Rs. 5.21 lakhs and the revised revenue absorbed 53 per cent of the assets. Its incidence per acre in cultivation was Re. 0-10-10. No assessment was placed on uncultivated land and the *sayar* (miscellaneous receipts other than land tax) receipts were estimated only at Rs. 4,000.

The 30 Years' Settlement will always be regarded as the principal landmark in the agrarian history of the District, as it gave effect to a most radical change in the treatment of the village *malguzars* or lessees. Hitherto their tenure had been entirely at the pleasure of the Government and indeed it was of so little value that no firmer hold was desired. It was now decided to recognise the *malguzari* status as including the proprietorship of the village, and proceedings for the conferral of proprietary rights formed the most important part of the Settlement operations. The headmen were converted into landlords with the ryots as their tenants, but the exercise of the proprietor's powers was substantially limited by the grant of special protection to a large proportion of the cultivators.

During the tenure of 30 Years' Settlement the District enjoyed a long succession of fairly prosperous seasons, which, coupled with a very light assessment and a largely increased export demand for grain, conferred such a degree of affluence on *malguzars* and tenants alike that they had never before experienced. The cropped area increased by 30 per cent, the acreage of the valuable

rice and linseed crops expanding very largely. The average rise in the prices of agricultural produce could be taken as 50 per cent.

Revision of Settlement

This Settlement ended in 1893 and 1894 in Damoh and Hatta tahsils, respectively, but as revision of the Settlement was due in 12 districts within a period of four years, and it was difficult to appoint a settlement officer to each district simultaneously, it was decided to frame the revised assessment of Damoh well in advance, i.e., a few years earlier to the date from which it would come into force. The District, therefore, was brought under revision of settlement in 1888 and the work was completed in 1891.

The accuracy of the village maps prepared at the Settlement of 1863 was satisfactory. But no steps were taken to correct and keep them up to date during the currecny of the Settlement. As the time for its revision approached it became necessary to undertake an entirely fresh survey. This was effected partly by professional survey parties and partly by patwaris. The professional surveyors made the preliminary traverse and provided sheets for each village on which they had laid down the position of survey marks placed as near the boundary of the village as possible. The patwaris followed the professional surveyors, and with the help of the marks laid down by the latter plotted the field boundaries and other details with the chain and cross-staff. Each patwari worked in his own circle, the patwaris of some of the largest circles receiving a paid assissant towards the end of the survey. The survey lasted from 1886 to 1890. The cost of the traverse was Rs. 31 per square mile and of the cadasstral survey Rs. 40 per square mile. The method of assessment was the one prescribed for the Central Provinces and included the elaborate classification and valuation of soils by relative factors and the fixation of rents according to the soil unit system.

In addition to the revenue payable by *malguzars* and *malik-makbuzas* or plot-proprietors the Settlement Officer fixed the rents of absolute occupancy and occupancy tenants. *Malik-makbuzas* were not numerous in Damoh. The nominal enhancement of *malik-makbuza* payment was from Rs. 12,900 to Rs. 22,200, but this comparison is misleading in that the former figure does not include, while the latter includes, the full assessment imposed on plots held revenue-free as against the *malguzars*. An area of 4,154 acres was held by men of this class revenue-free from Government and this land was excluded from assessment. Of the remaining area of 29,236 acres a considerable proportion was held either wholly or partly revenue-free as against the *malguzars* or village proprietors, the *malguzars* being liable for the revenue, but not entitled to collect it from the plot-holders. The incidence per acre was Re. 0-12-2. The payments of absolute occupancy tenants were raised from Rs. 1.18 to Rs. 1.44 lakhs or by 22 per cent. This was a very moderate rise as the rents

of this class of tenants had remained unaltered since the former Settlement. The enhancement was larger in open than in jungle tracts, but did not reach 30 per cent in any group. The rental incidence per acre was Re. 1-1-1, the area held in this right being 1.35 lakh acres.

The area held by occupancy tenants had increased during the period of 25 years, i.e., since the Settlement of 1863, from 67,000 to 1,68,000 acres under the operations of the rule by which the tenure was acquired by 12 years' possession. Practically no enhancement had been made in their rents and the average rental incidence had fallen from Re. 0-14-6 to Re. 0-13-10 on account of the inclusion of inferior land. Their rents were raised from Rs. 1.46 to Rs. 1.72 lakhs or by 17 per cent. The enhancement was much larger in the open than in the hilly groups. The incidence of the revised rental per acre was Rs. 1-0-3, the figure for the most highly assessed group being Rs. 1-9-0. The large class of ordinary tenants was found to be paying Rs. 2.83 lakhs for 2,50,000 acres or at the rate of Rs. 1-2-1 per acre. No general enhancement of the rents of ordinary tenants was undertaken. The rental incidence was Rs. 1-3-3 per acre. Taking all classes of tenants together, and including the enhancements at Settlement and those previously effected by the *malguzars*, the incidence of rent per acre in occupation rose from Re. 0-13-10 in 1863 to Rs. 1-1-10 in 1888 or by 28 per cent in 25 years. The gross increase in the rental was 53 per cent and the increase in area held by tenants 19 per cent during the same period.

The rate adopted for the valuation of *sir* and *khud-kasht* lands (the home-farm of the proprietors) was Rs. 1-4-11. as against the incidence of Rs. 1-3-3 per acre of the rental of ordinary tenants, the quality of the former land being much superior. *Sir* land, measuring 7,200 acres which was sub-let brought in a rental of Rs. 14,353 or about Rs. two an acre. The area of *sir* land was 92,000 acres and of *khud-kasht* 31,000 acres; and the rental valuation was Rs. 1.62 lakhs. Land measuring 10,500 acres was held rent-free from the *malguzars*, 6,300 acres being in lieu of service. The rental value of this land was Rs. 12,200 and was included in the assets.

Incidence of revenue

The incidence of the revised revenue per acres in cultivation was Re. 0-11-6 as against Re. 0-9-6 at the Settlement of 1863 or an increase of 22 per cent. Of the gross revised revenue a sum of Rs. 20,000 was assigned to private persons or temples. The net revenue was Rs. 4.24 lakhs. The rental incidence varied from Re. 0-5-10 in Kumhari group of Hatta to Rs. 1-11-8 in the Batiagarh group of the same tahsil, while the minimum and maximum figures of revenue incidence were Re. 0-3-9 and Re. 1-0-8 in the same group.

The total expenditure on the Settlement including the cadastral survey was Rs. 1,32 lakhs or Rs. 66 per square mile of *malguzari* area. Excluding

Expenditure on Settlement

the cadastral survey the cost of the Settlement was, therefore, only Rs. 53,000 or Rs. 26 per square mile and it was probably, considering the details to which operations were carried and the general quality of the work, one of the most economical till then effected in India. The total cost of survey and settlement was Rs. 99 per square mile. The revised Settlement was made for a term of 12 years running from 1st July, 1894. It was due to expire in 1906.

The Settlement had a very rough course to tread. It practically coincided with the commencement of the famine-cycle. The series of bad harvests began from 1893 and culminated in the famines of 1896-97 and 1899-1900 and as a result the Settlement completely broke down. Consequently, the revised revenue was never collected. During the seven years from 1893 to 1900 an out-turn in excess of half the normal was only obtained twice. The yearly average loss experienced by the people from the failures of crops was Rs. 28 lakhs, and the average annual collections of land revenue and cesses were only Rs. two lakhs or even less than the former demand under land revenue alone.

The cropped area fell from 5½ lakh of acres in 1893-94 to four lakhs in 1898-99. Relief measures on an intensive scale became necessary. It also became evident that revised rents and revenue must be lowered. Temporary abatements were first made in 1897-98 in the Rajpura group of Hatta tahsil in which the decline in cultivation was most serious. But this measure soon proved to be insufficient and in November, 1899, sanction was given to a general scheme of abatement on lines drawn up by the Commissioner of the Division. Relief was given only in villages whose cropped area had decreased by a fixed substantial percentage since attestation. In these the rents of tenants and the rental valuation of *malguzari* land were reduced in proportion to the loss in cropped area when this exceeded a fixed percentage in each individual case. The revenue of the village was reduced proportionately. Abatement thus given was allowed to continue for the term of the Settlement. The scheme was applied to 197 villages in Damoh and to 317 in Hatta tahsil. The wheat land suffered most, hence abatement was heaviest in *haveli* and comparatively insignificant in hilly tracts. The total decrease in the rental and rental valuation of home-farms amounted to Rs. 1.46 lakhs, and the corresponding reduction of revenue was Rs. 79,000 falling at 37 per cent of the demand of the affected villages and at 18 per cent of that of the District. The revised net revenue was Rs. 3.46 lakhs. This fell at ten annas per cultivated acre and at Rs. 1-3-0 per head of population in 1902-03.

The abatements carried out in a summary fashion, resulted as soon as the first signs of recovery were indicated in great unevenness of rents. The disparity between new rents and abated rents was chaotic. Besides this there was another cause of the extreme unevenness of the rents all over the District. During the famine cycle and immediately after it, *malguzars*, tempted by the prospect

Revision of Settlement in 1908-13

of a little ready cash, leased out large areas at low rents, which became out of date in a very few years. Finally, the Lodhi and Gond elements exercised a consistently depressing influence upon the rent-rate while in Bania, Brahman and Kurmi-owned villages, exactly the opposite tendency had prevailed.

In 1907, the unevenness became so much that it was decided to undertake a fresh settlement. The object of the new Settlement was as much to remedy this unsatisfactory state of things, reflected, as it was, in great unevenness of the revenue demand from village to village, as to secure a profit to Government, although the enhanced revenue anticipated was less than half a lakh. Regular operations were begun in 1907 with the sanction of the Government of India. During this famine period, the population which had fallen in 1901 by 13 per cent again showed an increase of 4 per cent in 1911 over the figures of 1891.

Great strides had been made in the improvement of communications throughout the District and prices showed a large rise since the last Settlement amounting to as much as 31 per cent in the case of wheat and 39 per cent in the case of rice. The occupied and cropped areas had risen by 7,128 and 3,218 acres, respectively, and the quality of the cropping had improved. By 1908, the *haveli* which had suffered most allowing for a little deterioration in the quality of cropping had practically regained its position of 1893, and was still enjoying the fruits of abatement. Thus, it is evident that owing to the rapid recovery of the District a considerable enhancement than was anticipated could be imposed.

The grouping of the previous Settlement was slightly modified and the 21 *malguzari* groups of the last Settlement were reduced to 20 groups under this Settlement. Attestation work began in 1908-09 and ended in 1910-11. The *malguzari* area of the District occupied for cultivation, exclusive of 24.295 acres excised for *ryotwari* was found in attestation as detailed in the Table below to be 7,32,677 acres, which was 41 per cent of the total District area and 58 per cent of that area exclusive of Government forest.

Table No. XI—1

Area under Different Tenures in 1910-11

Tenures	Acres	Per cent
1 *Malguzar's* home-farm	1,38,201	19
2 Tenancy land	5,47,766	75
3 *Malik-makbuzas'* area and *maufi sarkar*	33,831	4
4 Village servants' area	12,879	2
	7 32 677	100

A ten-fold classification of soils was recognized at the Settlement, namely, *kabar I, kabar II, mund I, mund II, rathia, patarua I, patarua II, bhasua, sihar* and *kachhar*. The classification of the previous Settlement was enriched by the addition of two new classes, namely, *sihar* and *kachhar*. These soils though scarce are of exceptional value.

The soils were also classified according to their cropping capacity. Four classes were recognized accordingly as the land was used for wheat, rice, minor crops and garden produce, respectively. This division was copied from that of the last Settlement. The slope of the land, a factor of extreme importance in Damoh was also allowed for. Some departure was made from the method followed at the last Settlement. Level land was classed as ordinary in the case of wheat and *saman* in that of rice. The area damaged by water courses was classed as *bharkila*. Sloping rice land was called *tikra* and the land favoured by an especially low-lying position *jhilan*. Undulating wheat land, a very large area, was given a separate position called *tagar* (not recognised at previous Settlements) and wheat fields protected by embankements were classed as *bandhwas*. Irrigated land had a class to itself in every cropping capacity. Finally land exposed to damage from jungle was classed *ujarha* and the valuable area manured by drainage from the village site was distinguished by the name of *geonra*. Double-cropping was so uncertain that the special class for double-cropped land employed at previous Settlements was discarded.

The land having been classed, the usuai scale of factors was framed to indicate the relative superiority and inferiority of each kind of soil. One acre of *mund I gohari mamuli* was the soil selected to carry the basal factor and the factor allotted to it was 32. Other soils were given factors higher or lower than 32, in proportion to their greater or less value, estimated with reference to cultivating profits, in comparison with one acre of level first class *mund* capable of producing wheat.

The factor-scale varied from Group to Group to suit local requirements. For example, in Hatta Tahsil *haveli*, rice cultivation was so rare and casual that where it was found, the field was treated as if it were wheat land. Those ordinary rents which had survived the strain of the famines and those which had been fixed by agreement since the famines, furnished the basis of revision. Protected and abated rents were enhanced to this standard. The enhancements resulting from these operations are shown below.

Table No. XI-2

Enhancement of Rent

Class	Prior to Revision (Rs)	As Revised (Rs)	Per cent Enhancement	Revised Acre Rate	Revised Unit Incidence
Absolute-Occupancy	1,12,184	1,45 983	30	1-4-3	1.15
Occupancy	1,13,545	1,43,359	26	1-2-7	1.18
Orninary	3,14,633	3,64,319	16	1-2-10	1.32
All-round	5,40,362	6,53,661	21	1-3-1	1.25

Abated rents were enhanced from Rs. 54,554 to Rs. 83,828 or by 54 per cent, 17 per cent representing the addition to unabated rents.

The share of Hatta Tahsil in the revised rental was Rs. 2,55,663, while that of Damoh Tahsil was Rs. 3,97,998. The actual enhancement in both the tahsils was 21 per cent.

Malik-makbuza payments were enhanced from Rs. 18,723 to Rs. 31,371 or by 68 per cent. This high enhancement was chiefly due to two causes. The first was that the last revision left these holders still paying at only 69 per cent of their deduced rental; the second, that abatement had been exceptionally heavy in this kind of right.

The home-farm of the District was valued at Rs. 2,05,218 or at Rs. 1-7-9 per acre as compared with a rate of Rs. 1-4-11 at the previous revision. The valuation throughout was effected at the rates sanctioned for tenants, land and the unit-incidence was 1.25—exactly the same as the all-round tenancy incidence.

Privileged tenants held 12,879 acres valued at Rs. 17,315. Much of their land was *bari* or in the *geonra* position. The unit-incidence of their revised payment was also 1.25.

As regards comparative position of rates in two tahsils, Hatta Tahsil was so distinctly inferior to Damoh Tahsil that it is worth noting the difference in the treatment accorded to the two tracts in rent fixation. The revised all-round tenancy rate in Hatta was Rs. 1-2-5 as against Rs. 1-3-7 in Damoh, but since the *haveli* occupied a larger proportionate area in the northern tahsil, the difference was really far greater than these figures suggested.

The assets as finally announced at the Settlement aggregated to Rs. 9,34,687 as compared to Rs. 8,24,840 worth assets of the previous Settlement. Twenty-five per cent of the assets were contributed by land in the cultivation of *malguzars* and their dependents, two per cent came from *siwai*, and the balance was made up of payments of tenants and *malik-makbuzas*. These assets were 13 per cent above those of the preceding Settlement which in turn, were 58 per cent above the assets of the 1864 revision.

The total revised revenue amounted to Rs. 4,84,107 which absorbed 52 per cent of the gross assets and 51 per cent of the *malguzari* assets In Hatta Tahsil which is far less secure than Damoh, 50 per cent of the *malguzari* assets was absorbed owing to the lowering of the Government share of the assets. Taking the District as a whole the increase in revenue was Rs. 1,19,965 on previous revenue and Rs. 40,654 on that of the 1864 Settlement.

The Rajpura Group consisting of 60 villages went entirely out of cultivation during the cycle of bad years. Recovery had been so recent at the date

of the revision that any interference with rents was held inadvisable. Regular settlement on the soil unit system was, accordingly, applied to the only strong village (Sadpur) and the remaining 59 villages were settled summarily on the basis of existing assets, of which 38 per cent fell under the head of *siwai*.

As regards the period of this Settlement, in Hatta Tahsil, the Settlement commenced from July 1,1911 in all but the Rajpura Group and six *ryotwari* villages, and in Damoh Tahsil in six groups and 46 *ryotwari* villages with a total revenue of Rs. 83,642. The revised assessment took effect from July 1,1912 in Hatta Tahsil, while in the rest it took effect from the 1st July, 1911.

The Settlement cost of Rs. 2,76,175 or Rs. 136 per square mile was recoverable within two and a half years' increase of revenue.

Total assets on which the assessments were based, as announced at the three last settlements, were as follows:—

Table No. XI-3

Total Assessments under three Settlements

	At 30 years' Settlement of 1863-64 (Rs.)	At Settlement of 1893-94 (Rs.)	At Settlement of 1908-13 (Rs.)
Malik-makbuzas' payments	4,16,000	22,100	31,400
Tenant's payments		6,06,600	6,52,900
Rental valuation of *sir*, *khud-kasht* and land held by privileged tenants	1,01,000	1,85,300	2,29,200
Siwai receipts	4,000	10,800	21,200
Total	5,21,000	8,24,800	9,34,700

The progress of the rent-roll excluding *ryotwari* villages during the past 50 years is given below:—

1.	At the beginning of the 30 Years' Settlement	(1864)	4,02,954
2.	At the close of that Settlement	(1890)	5,47,009
3.	As enhanced at next Settlement	(1893)	6,06,630
4.	After abatement in 1900-01		4,77,861
5.	As it stood prior to revision	(1908-13)	5,40,362
6.	As enhanced, i.e., sanctioned	(1908-13)	6,53,661

The last Settlement (1908-13) was immediately followed by the First World War and a consequent rise in prices, which proved to the advantage of the agriculturists. Similar conditions prevailed till 1929-30 and the decade ending that year may well be described as the boom period of the First World War. The last Settlement was sanctioned for 20 years, but fresh settlement operations could not be under taken because of violent fluctuations in prices, which ultimately turned the corner after a decade of depression in 1942-43, as a result of conditions created by the Second World War. The ten years that followed can equally well be described as the boom period of the Second World War. The worst period for agriculturists lasted from 1929-30 to 1938-39 and it was during this period of depression that they suffered the most. It is, however, noteworthy that there was no abatement in the revenue or rental demand during these worst years.

Agriculturists' Condition between two World Wars

The spiral of high prices which began with the the First World War has continued unabated, interrupted only by the Great Depression of the 'thirties. The cycle of increase in prices has greatly improved the general condition of the agriculturists and has stabilized their economy. Agriculturists' indebtedness has been appreciably reduced. There is a substantial increase in irrigated area and the various Grow More Food Schemes including the embankments of fields, use of fertilizers, improved seeds and mechanized cultivation, have begun to bear fruit. Transport facilities have greatly expanded and there is considerable improvement in rural communications. The activities of the State have a distinct rural bias. There has been an all-round rise in the values of land and agricultural produce and in spite of the increased cost of cultivation and maintenance agricultural profits have appreciably increased. Sub-letting values have gone up considerably.

Post-Independence era

Basing his proposals on these considerations the Forecast Officer in his report (1953) on the resettlement of Damoh District proposed an overall enhancement of 25 per cent in rents and the Deputy Commissioner of the District agreed with him.

Re-Settlement of 1953

Although the term of the Settlement of 1908-13 expired in 1931-32, no further settlement operations have been undertaken in the District with the result that the land revenue was being paid at rates assessed at the last Settlement. But lands, which were not assessed at this Settlement, could be assessed by the Collector in accordance with the provisons in the Land Revenue Code. We may close this section with a reference to a very important piece of legislation. By the Madhya Pradesh Land Revenue Code (amendment) Act, 1967 (No. 6 of 1967), land revenue on all uneconomic holdings meaning all agricultural holdings not exceeding 7.5 acres or holdings with a land revenue not exceeding Rs. five has been

Land Revenue Code

abolished. As a further measure of relief Madhya Pradesh Government, by promulgating the Madhya Pradesh Land Revenue Code (Amendment) Ordinance, 1968 (No. 10 of 1968) abolished land revenue with effect from 1st July, 1968. However, simultaneously it also promulgated the Madhya Pradesh Krishi Bhoomi Vikas Kar Adhyadesh, 1968 (No. 11 of 1968), under the provisions of which agricultural Land Development Tax has been levied. It is payable in respect of each holding used for purpose of agriculture, which is in excess of ten acres. The rate of the Tax is the same as that of the Land Revenue.

Ryotwari Villages

The District contained 52 *ryotwari* villages situated on land excised from Government forest and they were under the management of the Land Revenue Department. With very few exceptions these villages were waterless, uninhabited and of low quality. In the occupied area, 83 per cent of the soil was *patarua* and *bhatua*. They were all exposed to severe damage by wild animals. The expense of sinking wells in these villages was proved by experience to be almost prohibitive while availability of water was most doubtful. Six of the villages lay on the Rajpura plateau of Hatta tahsil, the remainder being scattered along the fringe and interior of the broken country south of Damoh *haveli*.

The total area held on *ryotwari* tenure was 24,000 acres in 1902-03 and the land revenue payable Rs. 4,000. Leases were given to the headmen on condition that they should live in the villages and receive a commission on collections of revenue at the rate of two annas in the rupee. The cutting of teak and certain fruit trees was prohibited. Land measuring 836 acres was sold outright under the Waste Land Rules. The area was not liable to land revenue but cesses were payable on it. Seven villages were formerly assessed on what was called the *bhai-chara* or communal tenure, all cultivators being declared owners of their holdings and a headman being elected to represent the village in its dealings with the Government. Recognition was, however, withdrawn subsequently from this tenure and the cultivators who were awarded proprietary rights were considered as co-sharers in the village.

At the time of the announcement of Settlement (1908-13), 12,336 acres comprised in 1,396 survey numbers were occupied and 4,647 arces available for occupation. The effect of resettlement was to raise ryot payments from Rs. 6,512 to Rs. 7,614 or by 17 per cent, but as the occupied area had shown an increase of four per cent between attestation and announcement, the enhancement in reality was very moderate. The acre-rate was raised from Rs. 0-8-9 to Rs. 0-9-11.

Siwai Income

Siwai or manorial income of the proprietors included receipts from various miscellaneous sources, such as, the cultivation of *singhara* or water-nut in tanks, but mainly represented forest income.

At the Settlement of 1908-13, the greatest difficulty was encountered in arriving at an estimate under *siwai*. Very few *malguzars* produced account books, and concealment was rife. The *siwai* income of previous Settlement, i.e., Rs. 10,810 was found to be flagrantly under-estimated. This fell at a rate of little over six pies per acre of *malguzari* forest. The *siwai* income at the time of this Settlement (1908-13) was Rs. 21,241. The principal area from which *siwai* was derived was 3,16,807 acres of forest and scrub, though much also came from the 2,19,246 acres of less valuable waste described as 'under water, hills, etc'. In some places the tenants had a prescriptive right to a share in the produce of the trees and care was taken to make deduction on this account.

Consequent upon the abolition of *malguzari* system, the *siwai* income which swelled the coffers of the *malguzar* now goes to the public exchequer.

Muafi Lands

It is reported in the earlier Gazetteer of Damoh District that nearly 19,000 acres were held wholly and 84,000 partially revenue-free and that the amount of revenue so assigned was Rs. 18,000. All this land except 2,000 odd acres was comprised in grants of villages or shares of villages. The estate of Hatri consisting of 30 villages was held on quit-rent of Rs. 500 a year. The grant dated from the time of the Marathas and at the death of the then proprietor the estate was to be assessed to a quarter of the revenue. The estate of Hindoria consisting of 17 villages was held on a quit-rent of Rs. 1,000, the grant dating from the time of Chhatrasal of Panna. The Gobra estate consisting of 18 villages was held on a quit-rent of one-fourth of the assessed revenue amounting to Rs. 300. These grants dated from the time of the Marathas. Bansa Kalan with some other villages were held revenue-free by a Maratha family whose ancestor commanded an army sent to the assistance of Chhatrasal and obtained these villages as a grant from him. The grant was partially resumed on the alienation by the family of a share in the villages.

At the last Settlement (1908-13), the area recorded at attestation as held without rent measured 11,863 acres. Of this, all but a very small portion consisted of encroachment or cultivation on which the *malguzar* had no time to fix rent. A little occupancy land was found held rent-free by expropriated co-sharers, with the consent of the transferees.

There were 25 *muafi* holdings in Damoh tahsil with an area of 969.48 acres. There was a perpetual *muafi* measuring 4,531 acres and other *muafis* measuring 5,261-96 acres in Hatta Tahsil of the District. With the enforcement of the Central Provinces and Berar Revocation of Land Revenue Exemptions Act 1948, these *muafis* have been resumed by the State and instead monetary grants of Rs. 93 in Damoh Tahsil and Rs. 94 in Hatta Tahsil have been sanctioned.

Income from Land Revenue and Special Cesses

The system of assessment continues to remain unchanged. However, certain modifications in practical working may be briefly noted. In 1938-39, the rental assessment was reduced by 12½ per cent on holdings of less than 12 acres as a measure of relief necessitated by steep fall in the prices of agricultural produce during 1930-39. Then came the Central Provinces Revision of Land Revenue of Estates Act, 1939.

The special features having a direct bearing on the revenue and rental histoy of the 'forties have been:

1. The enhancement in the percentage of land revenue on the total assets of the villages effected in 1946-47.

2. The resumption of *muafis* under the Central Provinces and Berar Revocation of Land Revenue Exemption Act, 1948.

3. The abolition of the *malguzari* system effected under the Abolition of Proprietary Rights Act of 1951.

The gradual increase in Government revenue at each stage is shown below:—

Table No. XI-4

Comparative figures of Increased Land Revenue

Sl. No.	Tahsil	Year	Land Revenue (Rs.)	Increased land Revenue (Rs.)	Total (Rs.)	Reasons for the Increase
1.	Damoh	1946-47	2,71,376	1,23,144	3,94,520	Due to 25 per cent
2.	Hatta	1946-47	1,85,953	85,487	2,71,440	enhancement on the existing revenue.
		Total	4,57.329	2,08.621	6,65 960	
1.	Damoh	1947-48	3,94,520	20,763	4,15,283	Due to resumption
2.	Hatta	1947-48	2,71,440	4,865	2,76,305	of *muafis*
		Total	6,65,960	25,628	6,91,588	
1.	Damoh	1950-51	4,15,283	1,27,543	5,42,826	Due to abolition
2.	Hatta	1950-51	2,76,305	90,143	3,66,448	of proprietary rights.
		Total	6,91,588	2,17.686	9,09,274	

The following table shows the statistics of demand and collection of land revenue from 1957-58 to 1970-71.

Table No. XI-5

Collection of Land Revenue

(Rs.)

Year	Land Revenue Demand	Land Revenue Collection
1957-58	9,40,450	4,15,695
1958-59	9,40,023	7,47,663
1959-60	11,19,517	9,43,985
1960-61	13,57,091	10,76,378
1961-62	10,41,659	8,58,537
1962-63	10,35,931	8,22,552
1963-64	10,53,077	8,75,292
1964-65	9,59,544	6,24,954
1965-66	9,60,089	7,85,357
1966-67	10,90,065	6,73,986
1967-68	12,59,525	3,86,074
1968-69	15,66,387	8,93,100
1969-70	10,91,387	1,33,283
1970-71	12,12,912	6,08,750

Source:—Collector, Damoh.

Previous to the abolition of *malguzari* system, the responsibility for collecting and depositing land revenue rested with the *lambardar*, who was either the proprietor or one of the proprietors of the village. When he died his son succeeded to his post subject to the approval of the Government. In case, if the *lambardar* was a minor or a female or became unfit due to any infirmity of body or mind, a *gomashta* was appointed by the Deputy Commissioner. The enforcement of the Madhya Pradesh Abolition of Proprietary Rights Act, 1950 (No. 1 of 1951) did away with the zamindari system and the ryots became the tenants of the State. For the collection of land revenue, the Government appointed Patels. They are paid a commission on the amount realized by them. In 1966, Patels numbering 1,333 were connected with land revenue collection work. The table below shows the commission disbursed to the Patels.

Table No. XI-6

Commission Paid to Patels

(Amount in Rs.)

Year	Hatta Tahsil	Damoh Tahsil	Total
1956-57	44 249	27,814	72,063
1957-58	25,177	60,991	86,168
1958-59	26,931	72,641	99,572
1959-60	51,157	40,411	91,568
1960-61	27,316	37,306	64,622
1961-62	24,789	36,162	60,951
1962-63	25,876	36,569	62,445
1963-64	25,068	37,388	62,456
1964-65	25,347	37,933	63,280
1965-66	—	—	63,317
1966-67	—	—	59,279
1967-68	—	—	49,498
1968-69	—	—	57,349
1969-70	—	—	52,358
1970-71	—	—	727,692

Source:—Collector, Damoh.

As an experimental measure 11 Gram Panchayats have also been associated with this work at the end of 1966.

The land revenue is recovered in two instalments, the first instalment falling due on 15th January and the second on Ist May. A month after these dates a defaulters' list is prepared and is sent to the Tahsildar for recovery.

Cesses

Besides land revenue, some cesses on land revenue have been levied by the Government from time to time. The earliest cess was the patwari cess.

The demand on account of the road, school and postal casses for 1902-03, was Rs. 20,000, for additional rates Rs. 7,000 and for patwari cess Rs. 15,000. The patwari cess was calculated at 4½ per cent on the land revenue, the education cess at 2 per cent, the road cess at 3 per cent, the postal cess at ½ per cent and additional rates (this cess was abolished in 1905) at 2 per cent. The total demand for cesses was thus Rs. 42,000 raising the combined demand for land revenue and cesses to Rs, 3.88 lakhs. The tenants paid 3 pies in the rupee to the patwari and a sum varying from 1½ to 9 pies in the rupee to the Kotwar.

The position regarding cesses underwent a change in 1920 when, under the Central Provinces Local Self Government Act, 1920(IV of 1920), only a cess for maintenance of schools, roads and for general purposes was levied in the District. This was calculated at 6¼ per cent on the land revenue and its proceeds were paid to the District Council Damoh. Another change took place in 1946, when a Panchayat cess was introduced under the Central Provinces and Berar Panchayats Act, 1946 (I of 1947). This cess was payable at the rate of six pies per rupee on land revenue and rentals of proprietors and tenants (other than sub-tenants) in respect of land held by them in the Gram Panchayat area, and the proceeds were paid to the Gram Panchayat concerned. When the District Councils were replaced by Janapada Sabhas in 1948, a Janapada Sabha cess was imposed under the Central Provinces and Berar Local Government Act, 1948, (XXXVIII of 1948). This was calculated at 30 pies per rupee and the proceeds were payable to the Janapada Sabha concerned.

The Panchayat and Janapada cesses are still levied in the District. It may, however, be stated that uuder the Madhya Pradesh Panchayats Acts, 1960, a cess at the rate of 10 paisa per rupee is being levied at the Panchayat level.

The Table given below shows the annual demand and collection of cesses for the period from 1963-64 to 1967-68.

Table No. XI—7

Collection of Cesses

(Amount in Rs.)

Year	Demand	Collection
1963-64	1.55,318	1.47 211
1964-65	1,55,419	1,50 318
1965-66	1.55,743	1,36,424
1966-67	2,59,184	1,10,313
1967-68	3,02,861	85,592

Source:—Collector, Damoh.

Relations between Landlord and Tenant

Under the old Maratha system of assessment each village had its Patel or headman. He had certain duties such as to collect the rents from the tenants and pay them into the Government treasury, and in return he used to get one eighth of the gross collections. In addition to his fixed duties, the Patel had certain powers in criminal matters and was more or less the arbiter of the village destinies. Office of the Patel was not hereditary, but in fact, it did descend from father to son so long as the duties of the office were duly performed and the revenue demanded was regularly paid. But under the British rule,

the position changed. The old race af "*Watandar* Patels" disappeared, as instead of each village having its Patel resident among the tenantry a *malguzar* was introduced, who had as many villages as he had the means of controlling without detriment to the interest of the Government. Subsequently, a number of new men came in as *malguzars*, who in a few cases were in the position of cultivators of their holdings. Under the Maratha Government there was no trace of such a thing as tenant right or prescriptive rights of occupancy existing under any term, except in the case of *muafidars* and grants of land for religious or charitable purposes.

It is reported that the *malguzar*, i.e., the party who engaged to pay the Government revenue on the land, did very much what he liked with all the tenures in the land, so far as he had the power to do so.

Under 30 Years' Settlement

This change of a most radical nature was effected at the 30 Years' Settlement (1863-65). Before this, their tenure had been entirely at the pleasure of the Government and it was of so little value that no firm hold was desired. It was decided at this time to recognise the *malguzari* status as including the proprietorship of the village and proceedings for the conferment of proprietary rights formed the most important part of the Settlement operations. The headmen were converted into landlords with the ryots as their tenants, but the exercise of the proprietor's powers was substantially limited by the grant of special protection to a large proportion of the cultivators, according to the interest they held in land resulting in the evolution of a series of different tenancy tenures. This changed the relationship between the *malguzar* and the cultivator as the maintenance of cordial relations assumed new importance.

Under 1908-13 Settlement

At the time of the last Settlement (1908-13) it was observed by the Settlement Officer that considering the District as a whole, genuine oppression of tenants by their landlords was rare. His other observations may also be noted.

'From the landlords' point of view, their relations with their tenants have changed for the worse in the last twenty years. Except when the tenant has reason to fear ejectment he has become more independent of his malguzar and looks more to the Bania and to Government for aid in time of need. This is the result of the famines when much of the grain-lending business passed from the hands of malguzars to professional lenders and also the liberal relief measures adopted by Government gave the tenant a new idea of his own importance. ....The tenant in Damoh, secure in his rights, and often paying a nominal rent for his land has had comparatively little incentive to improve his position as against his malguzar and self-help is decidedly not one of his characteristics. My Assistants from the south of the province were astonished at the triviality of the matters in which cultivators invoke Government assista-

nce. Except when enmeshed in debt, borrowed from their malguzar, they show very little reluctance to complain against their landlords and their Patwaris. The debt conciliation proceedings undoubtedly loosened the tie between the two classes. Villages have been named in the C. Notes where malguzars, repenting of the generous enthusiasm that swept like a wave over the district in 1899 have ever since collected their debts with a rigour that has resulted in embittered relations with their tenants and in the absorption of much tenancy land in the homefarm. The temporary curtailment of credit, indeed was one of the most beneficial results of the conciliation movement." [1]

Malguzars were nearly all money-lenders. Thus, the tenant had a dual relationship with his landlord, one that of a tenant and the other of a debtor.

But this situation had another depressing aspect. The whole of the produce of the cultivator was taken over by the landlord in satisfaction of the debt. Under these conditions, when the *malguzar* was getting all he possibly could out of the land, he was not interested to add to the rent-roll by enhancement, because at the time of resettlement he would be assessed on all such additions. He, therefore, kept his rent-roll as low as possible, entered all payments of money or grain by the cultivator as made in satisfaction of his money-lending claims and put down as small a sum as possible in the patwari's papers under the head of rent recoveries. The money-lender cum *malguzars* often contrived to appropriate payments made to them by ignorant tenants for rent, towards the satisfaction of private debts. In this context, though the relations between landlords and tenants were outwardly cordial, the growing enlightenment of the latter and their consequent awakening from their traditional outlook of patient fatalism led to the increasing assertion, from time to time, of their rights against the privileged position of their landlords.

The result was that during the late 'thirties, especially, there was an increase in the number of suits filed by the landlords for rental arrears and ejectments.

The Government had to take certain measures in the shape of legislation for the protection of the tenantry. The Tenancy Act of 1883 which came into effect from 1st January 1884 was the first enactment which defined the rights and liabilities of the then existing classes of tenants, namely, absolute occupancy tenants, occupancy tenants and ordinary tenants and provided measures against rack-renting, ejectments, etc. Under this Act, all the tenants-at-will were converted into ordinary tenants. Again, under this Act the right of purchasing occupancy right by the payment of a premium equal to 2½ years' rental was substituted in place of the previous provision of 12 years' continuous possession.

Tenancy Act of 1883

1. Damoh Settlement Report, 1908-13, p. 20.

The ordinary tenants were also given the power of claiming compensation for disturbance and were protected from ejectment for non-acceptance of rental enhancement until such compensation was paid.

Tenancy Act of 1898

After a few successive amendments the Act was replaced by a new Tenancy Act of 1898, under which the Settlement Officer was authorised to fix all rents. This enabled him to reduce the rents of ordinary tenants which he deemed excessive. At about this time, a clause was inserted in the *Wajib-ul-Urz*, which bound the *malguzars* in their dealings with the tenants to abide by the provisions of the Tenancy Act.

Tenancy Act of 1920

This Act with some minor amendments remained in force until 1920, when the Tenancy Law was completely re-enacted and was made known as Central Provinces Tenancy Act (I of 1920). The Act recognised three classes of tenants, namely, absolute occupancy tenants, occupancy tenants, and sub-tenants. It abolished the class of ordinary tenants, and all such tenants were converted into occupancy tenants.

Amendments to Tenancy Act of 1920

No significant change took place till the Congress Ministry assumed the reins of administration in the Central Province The Government appointed a Revenue Committee on the 17th of August, 1938, to consolidate the then existing land revenue and tenancy laws of the Provinces. In the meantime section 77 of the Tenancy Act was amended to enable a revenue officer to take action *suo motu* against a landlord for refusing to grant a receipt or for giving a defective receipt. A new section, 88-A, was also inserted in the Tenancy Act providing for penalty for *begar* taken by landlords. Again in pursuance of the recommendations of the Revenue Committee the Tenancy Act, 1920 underwent many amendments in 1939-40, under one of which it was provided that tenants of habitually let-out lands, whether held by *malik-makbuzas* by *malguzars* as *sir* or by cultivators under occupancy rights, could become occupancy tenants thereof. Also a 12½ per cent reduction of rents was given in small holdings during 1937-38. The Government by an amendment of the Act was empowered to declare absolute occupancy tenants and occupancy tenants as *malik makbuzas* on payment to the landlord of an amount equal to 10 and 12½ times, respectively, of the rent of the holding. By another amendment, sub-tenants of *malik-makbuzas* and tenants were also recorded as occupancy tenants, if the lands were habitually sub-let. Further, if *sir* or *khud-kasht* lands were leased as one holding on or after the 1st of November, 1939, the lessee could acquire the same right in *sir* land as he would in the *khud-kasht* land and the *sir* right in such land was extinguished.

Apart from the general enactments mentioned above, a special legislation known as the Central Provinces Land Alienation Act, 1916, was enforced

Land Alienation Act

for the protection of aboriginal land-owners and for securing their retention of the land. The Act was reported to have been found helpful in preventing the aboriginal proprietors being wiped out of existence.

Relief of Indebtedness Act

A further measure for the relief of agriculturists was placed on the Statute Book in the shape of the Central Provinces and Berar Relief of Indebtedness Act, which conferred powers to reopen certain transactions and to grant relief both in respect of the principal and interest and to draw up schemes for the payment of the balance of the debt. The Act came into force from the 18th July 1939.

Land Revenue of Estates Act

The Central Provinces and Berar Revision of the Land Revenue of Estates Act came into force in 1939, which resulted in the enhancement of *takoli* of zamindars. The object of the enactment was to enlarge the financial resources of the Province by readjusting the relation of the State and the zamindars on a basis more equitable to general tax-payers and to meet the increasing expenditure on social services and rural reconstruction necessitated by the multifarious and growing needs of the rural population. The effect of this legislation was the reduction of the financial position of the zamindars almost to the status of ordinary malguzars.

Abolition of Proprietary Rights Act 1950 and Agricultural Raiyats & Tenants Act, 1950

After the reassumption of office by the Congress Ministry in 1946, the Central Provinces and Berar Legislative Assembly passed a resolution on the 3rd September 1946, for the elimination of intermediaries between the State and the tiller. In pursuance of this resolution an Act styled as the Madhya Pradesh Abolition of Proprietary Rights Act was passed into law on the 5th of April 1950. It received the assent of the President on the 22nd of January 1951.

While the Bill was awaiting the assent of the President, an interim legislative measure known as the Madhya Pradesh Agricultural Raiyats and Tenants (Acquisition of Privileges) Act, 1950, (XVIII of 1951) was enforced for facilitating the abolition of proprietary rights and the protection of tenants from ejectment, etc. It also provided for the conferment of plot proprietorship right (*malik-makbuza*) on payment of a prescribed premium. In the shape of the Madhya Pradesh Abolition of Proprietary Rights Act, 1950 (I of 1951), an epoch-making measure was adopted by the State Government for the abolition of zamindari and *malguzari* system in the State. Under a notification issued under section 3 of the Act, all proprietary rights in estates and *mahals* barring home-farm land, homestead, private wells and tanks and occupied land held by proprietors and tenants, all rights and title and interest vesting in the proprietor or any person having interest in such proprietary rights through the

proprietor including land, grass land, scrub jungle, forest, trees, fisheries, wells, tanks, ponds, water channels, ferries, pathways, village sites, huts, bazars and *melas* were vested in the State Government. The home-farm or other lands under the cultivation of proprietors were left with them. For the loss of proprietary rights, the proprietors were entitled to compensation in accordance with the scales prescribed in the Act. Compensation thus payable amounted to Rs. 8,34,938.55. Moreover, the petty proprietors were entitled to a rehabilitation grant. It was payable immediately and the amount of compensation was payable in instalments not exceeding eight. All secured debts and liabilities due from the outgoing proprietors, except the excluded debts, were to be scaled down by the Claims Officer to be appointed under the Act.

A special department under the name of the Land Reforms Department was constituted in the State for implementing various provisions made in the Act. Under the set-up of this Department, a Deputy Commissioner of Land Reforms was appointed in the District with Compensation-cum-Claims Officers and other supporting staff.

The revenue administration of the village was dealt with by the Patwari in the beginning, but subsequently Patels were appointed through election for this purpose. The Abolition of Proprietary Rights Act besides abolishing the *malguzari* system, also aimed at giving greater security and additional rights to the tenants. For instance, the Act allowed them to hold lands in their previous rights as tenants of the State and to pay rent to the Government as payable to the ex-proprietors thus bringing them in direct relationship with the Government. The tenants were further given facilities to acquire plot proprietary rights in the lands held by them on payment of a nominal premium. The position in the former *malguzari* villages thus was that all cultivators, other than sub-tenants, became the tenants of the State and the ex-proprietors became *malik-makbuzas* of the land under their personal cultivation. The cultivators, however, took little advantage of the facility extended under the Act for the acquisition of the *malik-makbuza* rights. Persons holding service land were declared to be occupancy tenants of the State if the service was no longer required.

As a result of this Act, an area of 12,73,082 acres was vested in the State out of which 7,58,202 acres were cultivable and 5,14,880 acres fallow lands. *Bhumidhari* tenants who acquired *bhumidhari* rights under the Act totalled 7,689, the land involved was 26,780 acres and the premium received Rs. 46,455.

The enactment of the legislation on the abolition of *malguzari* and zamindari system was followed by the adoption of measures for the simplification of the then existing multiplicity of land tenures. With this end in view the Government in the old Madhya Pradesh appointed a Committee to evolve a common land revenue code whose deliberations resulted in the enactment of the Madhya

Land Revenue Code, 1954

Pradesh Land Revenue Code, 1954 (II of 1955) consolidating the current land laws of the State. This new legislation came into force from 1st October, 1955. The Act brought the various types of land-holders under two categories (i) *bhumiswami*, and (ii) *bhumidhari*. Under the Code all *malik-makbuzas, raiyat maliks*, and absolute occupancy tenants were made *bhumiswami* or full proprietors of the land, while the occupancy tenants, *raiyat* or *raiyat sarkar* were given *bhumidhari* right, which was almost equivalent to a proprietary right except a restriction that a *bhnmidhari* could not mortgage his interest in his holding nor could such interest be attached or sold in execution of any decree or order. But a *bhumidhari* had the option to acquire *bhumiswami* right by paying three times the land revenue to the State Government.

As regards sub-tenants and lessees, the Central Provinces Tenancy Act of 1920 provided that any person who habitually sub-let his land for seven years in a consecutive period of 10 years ran the risk of having the last sub-tenant created as an occupancy tenant under him and such an occupancy tenant was given the right to acquire the rights of his landlord on payment of 12½ times the rent. In the Land Revenue Code 1954, the meaning of "habitual sub-letting" was further modified by substituting a lesser period of three years in any period of five years. An occupancy tenant of *bhumiswami* and *bhumidhari* was given option to acquire ownership right on payment of premium at ten and seven times the rent, respectively.

Land Revenue Code, 1959

The position of land tenures and tenant reforms was again reviewed after the new State of Madhya Pradesh was constituted which resulted into the enactment of a unified Land Revenue Code, 1959 (No. 20 of 1959) which came into force from the 2nd of October 1959. It provides for the uniformity in tenure-holdings, protection of tenants against arbitrary ejectment, termination of tenancy, occupancy tenants' right of transfer, checking rack-renting and conferring *bhumiswami* rights on them. Thus, in a nut-shell, it has brought into existence the peasant-proprietorship. This Code provides for only one class of tenure holders of lands known as *bhumiswami*. A *bhumiswami* shall have rights of transfer unless at least five acres of irrigated or ten acres of unirrigated land is left with him. He has a right to mortgage his land both by simple and usufructuary mortgage. A *bhumiswami* of land held for the purpose of agriculture is entitled to make any improvement on it for better cultivation or for its more convenient use. The Code also provides for the protection of the rights of sub-tenants, who are given the status of occupancy tenants with all rights and liabilities as defined under the Code.

An occupancy tenant can be conferred *bhumiswami* right on his paying 15 times the land revenue to be paid in five equal instalments. With a view to protecting occupancy tenant from being rack-rented, the Code provides that maximum rent papable by him shall not exceed four times the land revenue in

case of irrigated land, three times in case of *bandh* land and two times in all other cases. The tenancy of an occupancy tenant in his holding shall be liable to termination by an order of the Sub-Divisional officer on the ground of his failing to pay his rent on or before the due date, use of land other than for agriculture, transfer of interest in the land in contravention of the specified rules or doing anything to injure the land. No sub-letting or leasing of land is now permitted except in very emergent cases once in three years or by certain classes of persons, such as, widows, unmarried women, minors, etc.

Details regarding the Land held and land revenue paid by different kinds of tenure holders are shown in the following table.

Table No. XI—8

Land Held and Land Revenue Paid by Tenure Holders

Categories	1956-57	1959-60	1960-61	1964-65	1965-66	1966-67	1967-68	1968-69	1969-70
Bhumiswami									
Holdings (No.)	37,697	39,098	1,106.374	1,21,119	1,20,388	1,22,147	1,26,166	1,27,592	1,29,181
Area (ha)	10,432.29	1,01,631.63	31,464.19	3,20,091.86	3,16,843	3,17,185	3,17,544	3,17,875	3,17,953
Land Revenue (Rs.)	3,204.78	3,20,752	8,46,641	2,59,190	9,40,008	7,59,485	6,94,973	6,06,713	6,17,576
Diversion Rent (Rs.)								13,384	15,487
Bhumidhari									
Hoiding (No.)	33,862	92,329	—	337	—	—	—	—	—
Area (ha)	2,09,926.76	12,12,658.05	4,679.38	—	—	—	—	—	—
Rent (Rs.)	6,17,562	6,24,452	—	2,787	—	—	—	—	—
Government Leases									
Holding (No.)	5	5	4	10	20	305	851	1,476	1,711
Area (ha)	66.37	66.37	58.68	216.29	336	895	2,022	3 688	4,031
Rent (Rs.)	35	—	—	—	252	954	2,413	3,689	4,879
Bhoodan-Dharak									
Holdings (No.)	8	39	48	70	76	68	83	92	89
Area (ha)	18.62	134.76	91.46	134.76	164	179	181	199	196
Rent Rs.	30	209	168	226	207	209	102	223	195
Service Land									
Holding (No.)	733	734	733	459	669	783	890	926	952
Area (ha)	1,234.69	1,234.69	1,234.69	1,229.84	1,103	1,517	2 036	2,249	2,371

Source.—Superintendent of Land Records, Damoh.

Ceiling on Holdings

With all these land reforms indicated above, the question of fixing a ceiling on ownership of land holdings was also considered in the former Madhya Pradesh. The Government appointed in 1954 a committee known as the Land Reforms Committee to examine the matter at great length. The Committee submitted a report in 1955. The Committee recommended the imposition of a ceiling on the existing possession of land holding as well as future acquisitions. But before any action could be taken on these recommendations, Reorganisation of States took place in the country. This question was again taken up in the reorganised State of Madhya Pradesh and as a result, a special law called the Madhya Pradesh Ceiling on Agricultural Holdings Act, 1960 (No. XX of 1960) was enacted and brought into force from 15th November 1961. According to this Act, apart from inherited land, no person could acquire more than 25 standard acres per family consisting of a husband and wife. Additional five standard acres was allowed for dependants upto five, subject to a ceiling of 25 standard acres. The ceiling was, thus, limited, depending on the number of dependents to 50 standard acres. But this Act remained more or less on the statutes alone and could not come into force.

The public opinion again crystallised in favour of a ceiling on land holdings, and the Government of Madhya Pradesh, in keeping with socialistic ideals, passed the Ceiling on Agricultural Holdings (Amendment) Bill in April 1972. It has been pointed out that about a crore of people in Madhya Pradesh are landless. According to the amendment of 1972 the land ceiling has been reduced to 10 standard acres for an individual and 15 standand acres for a family upto five members. Additional 8 standard acres (i.e. upto 18 standard acres) have been allowed for dependants at the rate of 2 standard acres for every extra dependent member. For this purpose of this Act a standard acre means one acre irrigated land from Government source available for more than one crop in a year, or two acres seasonal irrigated land from Goverment source, available for at least one crop or three acres dry land. This Act came into force from 1st January 1972.

As regards Damoh District, the position of the agricultural holdings in 1967-68 according to different sizes is given below.

Table No. XI-9

Agriculture Holdings in the District

Size	No. of holdings	Percentage to total
Less than 1 acre	30,200	23.6
1 to 2.5 Acre	25,300	19.8
2.5 to 5 Acre	25,900	20.3
5 to 10 Acre	23,300	18.3
10 to 30 Acre	19,700	15.4
30 to 50 Acre	2,600	2.0
50 to 100 Acre	700	0.5
Above 100 Acre	100	0.1
	1,27,800	100.0

Nistar and Grazing Rights

Formerly, *nistar* and grazing rights were regulated by the *malguzars* in accordance with the customs and rules recorded in the village administration paper, called *wajib-ul-arz*. Later the landlords began to take *begar* (free labour) from the tenants. This led the Government to make a suitable provision in the Central Provinces Tenancy Act in 1937-38 under which landlords could be penalized for taking *begar*. The proprietary body began to withhold or limit the facilities so far enjoyed by the tenantry. The result was that there were some disputes about *nistar* and grazing rights in the District which had to be settled in revenue and civil courts. Again, in view of the contemplated abolition of the *malguzari* system, the *malguzars* tried to deny *nistar* rights to the people. This eventually led to the enactment of the Central Provinces and Berar Grazing and Nistar Act, 1948 (XXII of 1948), which provided for free grazing of the cattle of agriculturists and a prescribed number of cattle of non-agriculturists in the grazing area of all villages.

Following the abolition of the *malguzari* system, the administration of *nistar* also devolved on the State Government. In order to settle the grazing and *nistar* problems on systematic lines, the Government appointed in each tahsil special staff headed by a Nistar Officer of the rank of a Deputy Collector who, after settling disputed problems of *nistar* rights and grazing, revised the *wajib-ul-arz* of each village.

According to the provisions of the land revenue Code, 1969, two documents *wajib-ul-arz* and *nistar patrak* are prepared for each village. They specify the rights of all the villagers in respect of the occupied and unoccupied lands in the village and seek to put an end to unnecessary litigation. *Nistar patraks* for all the villages of the District have been prepared.

Consolidation of Holdings

The work of consolidation of holdings was taken up in the District in 1949-50, when the Central Provinces Consolidation of Holdings Act, 1928 (VIII of 1928), was extended to Sagar district which then comprised Damoh District as well. The work came to a close in 1958-59. The scheme was compulsory neither under the Central Provinces Consolidation of Holdings Act, 1928, nor under the Madhya Pradesh Land Revenue Code, 1959, which now governs the consolidation of holdings. The work was resumed in December, 1962, when a consolidation party was posted. There has been some opposition to the scheme from the cultivators, who are generally reluctant to part with their ancestral lands. For these reasons the progress of the scheme has been tardy, as is evident from the table given below. The table below shows the progress of the consolidation work in the District during the past 16 years.

Table No. XI-10

Consolidation of Holdings

Year	No. of Villages for which Schemes were prepared and Confirmed	Area Consolidated (Acres)	*Khasra* Number Before *Chakbandi*	*Khasra* Number Excluded for Chakbandi, i.e. *baris, Kethars*	*Khasra* Numbers After *Chakbandi*	Percentage Reduction of Col. (6 on Col. (4)
1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Since beginning to						
1950-51	7	10,516	2,218	N.A.	1,441	36
1951-52	Nil	Nil	Nil	Nil	Nil	Nil
1952-53	2	668	686	N.A.	401	42
1953-54	Nil	Nil	Nil	Nil	Nil	Nil
1954-55	75	59,891	19,449	N.A.	14,149	27
1955-56	73	43,287	19,101	-do-	14,235	25
1956-57	30	19,317	9,519	-do-	7,329	23
1957-58	16	8,223	5,271	-do-	4,269	20
1958-59	3	5,362	3,446	-do-	2,321	33
1959-60 to 1961-62	Nil	Nil	Nil	Nil	Nil	Nil
1962-63	6	2,586	2,567	194	1,682	34
1963-64	29	20,861	10,970	1,131	7,793	29
1964-65	36	29,890	14,208	1,625	11,128	22
1965-66	42	29,528	16 607	1,966	11,609	31
1966-67	23	9,822	9,062	—	5,435	—
1967-68	7	2,518	2,823	—	2,051	—
1968-69	21	7,428	11,031	—	8,215	—
1969-70	19	3,240	11,961	—	9,541	—
1970-71	26	47,079	12,997	—	9,980	—
1971-72	7	2,283	10,812	—	8,437	—
1962-63 to 1971-72	226	82,179	103,079	—	76,871	—

Source—Directorate of Land Records, Madhya Pradesh, Gwalior, (for 1950-51 to 1965-66). Figs. from 1966-67 to 1971-72 are furnished by Consolidation Officer, Damoh.

The above table clearly shows that from the inception of the Scheme till 1953-54 its achievements were almost negligible. It was during the years 1954-55 to 1958-59 that some substantial work was done.

Bhoodan

The *Bhoodan Yagna* (land gift) movement was initiated in the country in 1951 by Acharya Vinoba Bhave to solve the problem of landless labourers. Its impact was also felt in this District as in the rest of the country. For facilitating this movement in the State, Madhya Pradesh Bhoodan Yagna Act, 1953 (No. XV of 1953) was enacted under which a Bhoodan Yagna Board was constituted with headquarters at Nagpur. In the reorganised State of Madhya Pradesh, this Board functions for the Mahakoshal Region only with its headquarters at Narsimhapur. It receives an annual grant from the Government. During the years from 1958-59 to 1966-67 (till July) land measuring 1,638.72 acres was received in donations for distribution.

Rural Wages and the Condition of Agricultural Labour

At the Settlement of 1893-94 the proprietors and tenants alike were seriously embarrassed and were under debt. The origin of this indebtedness lay in the farming settlement which preceded the 30 years' Settlement of 1863-64, when the revenue was, through a mistake, assessed and exacted with undur rigour, and the subsequent succession of bad years from 1893 to 1901. Russell in the Damoh District Gazetteer observed that very few of the malguzars were out of debt during 1893-94. Still fewer advanced seed-grain to their tenants and even those who did so. had greatly restricted their operations due to famines. Many proprietors who remitted large sums in the conciliation proceedings also had ceased to lend money to their tenants. It had been stated that the proprietors were experiencing greater difficulties in the realisation of rents and that their authority over the tenants had been weakened.

Due to famine cycles in this District, the condition of agricultural labour did not give much satisfaction. In 1893, the wage of an able-bodied agricultural labourer was Rs. 4.75 per month and that of skilled artisans (masons, carpenters and blacksmiths) Rs. 11.62 p. per month. In 1902 a labourer received Rs. 5 a month and in 1903 Rs. 4, while the wages of artisans ranged between Rs. 12 and 15. These rates, however, were those prevailing in Damoh and the customary wages for agricultural labour in the interior were lower, whether calculated in cash or grain.[1]

The farm-servants employed for the whole year were called *barsia* or *harwaha* (ploughman). A cultivator kept about half as many farm-servants as he had ploughs in continuous employment and for the remaining work employed labourers as required. A tenant with two pairs of plough-cattle thus had only one permanent farm servant as a rule. Farm-servants were usually engaged on a monthly wage of Rs. 3 to Rs. 3.50 p. if paid in cash and of 6 *seis* or 144 lbs. if paid in grain. In some places of the District 5 *seis* or 120 lbs. was the rate and in this case, for the farm-servant, a small plot of about two-fifths of

1. Damoh District Gazetteer, pp. 115-116.

an acre in the tenants holding was frequently sown from which he obtained another about 200 lbs. after deducting the seedgrain. Wages in kind were paid half in autumn and half in the spring. Total value of the perquisites was about 158 lbs. and the total grain wages of a farm-servant was about 1,728 lbs. or, taking grain at 40 lbs. to the Rupee, about Rs. 43. The grain wages were thus substantially higher than cash wages.[1]

The cattle-herd was called *baredi*. Landowners and large tenants had their private herdsmen and there was also one herdsman for the village in small villages and two or three in large ones. A herdsman got 2 to 4 *sels* or 48 lbs. to 96 lbs, of grain a month according to his age, i.e., a boy or an adult. Another agricultural servant was the *gobarwali*, usually a woman whose duty was to remove cowdung from the stalls and place it on the manure heap outside the village during the four rainy months. During the rest of the year she made cow-dung cakes. She used to receive one to three *sels* or from 24 to 72 lbs. of grain a month according to the number of cattle. Among the cultivating castes the women themselves, even the wives of the *malguzars*, used to collect the manure.

A casual labourer, whether agricultural or not, is called *banihar*. Special names for agricultural labourers were *boka* for a sower, *nidaiya* for weeder, and *nunaiya* for a reaper. Such agricultural labour was usually paid for in grain and cash wages. The rates of cash wages were 6 to 7 pice, (i.e., 9 to 11 paise) for a woman and 8 to 10 pice, (i.e., 12 to 15 paise) for a man. It is reported in the Gazetteer of Damoh District that farm servants and labourers were usually Chamars in the open country and Gonds in the hills, but they belonged also to all the cultivating castes including Brahmins. Judged by any economic standard, these people were reported to be miserably poor. They were ill-clothed and lived in great squalor.

It is observed that in the present decade with the implementation of development and other allied welfare activities both in urban and rural areas, and provision of more amenities in towns, a tendency is developing amongst the people to shift from villages to towns or nearby districts in search of better job opportunities. As a consequence, paucity of agricultural labour is being felt, which is also on account of the competition of non-agricultural works, e.g., construction of roads, and irrigation projects in the District and of industrial centres outside. In this area, bidi-making industry carried on in villages is also offering better wages than agricultural employment. As a result, the old Madhya Pradesh Government enacted a law directing seasonal closure of bidi workshops in rural areas, but it was held to be unconstitutional.

The collection of wage statistics of Madhya Pradesh dates back to the last quarter of nineteenth century. Provision for uniformity and scientific pro-

1. Ibid.

cedure for the preparation and submission of the returns of wage-rates in Madhya Pradesh existed in the Revenue Manual of the Central Provinces and Berar. Previously the Deputy Commissioner of each district was required to submit such information to the Director of Industries, Madhya Pradesh by 30th June annually, but in pursuance of the recommendations of the Government of India, the Director of Land Records has started from 1955-56 the Collection of statistics of daily wages of agricultural and rural labourers. For Damoh District, Abhana has been selected for such purposes as the representative rural centre.

According to the Census of 1961, cultivating labourers constituted about 7.29 per cent of the total workers in the District. The problem of agricultural labourers is a part of the wider problem of unemployment and under-employment in rural areas. The Five Year Plans include proposals for the settlement of agricultural labour and their protection against ejectment from homestead. For checking labour exploitation, minimum rates of wages have been fixed in different scheduled employments.

Other Sources of Revenue-Central and State

The important items of Central revenues are Union Excise Duties, Income Tax and Estate Duty.

Central Taxes

Statistics of receipts from various Central and State sources of revenue are given in Appendix. Wherever available, revenue receipts during the last century and the beginning of the present century have also been shown.

Union Excise Duty

The main excisable commodities in the District are tobacco and vegetable non-essential oils. The other excisable commodities are cotton fabrics, package tea, electric fans, electric-motors and china-wares. The annual receipts have increased from Rs. 17.46 lakhs in 1958-59 to Rs. 52.78 lakhs in 1969-70 i.e., more than three times.

Income Tax

Income tax was in force in the former Central Provinces as far back as 1861-62, but it was abolished in 1865-66. It was reintroduced in 1869-70, but was again abolished in 1873-74. The Income Tax was once again revived in 1887-88, and has been in force since then. Previously, the assessment and collection of this Tax formed part of the duties of the Revenue Department of the Province, but after Income Tax became a Central source of revenue, a separate administrative machinery was created for this purpose in 1922 under the Central Government. At present the assessment and collection of Income Tax in the District is the duty of the Income Tax Officer, Sagar Circle, with

headquarters at Sagar. The circle comprises the districts of Sagar and Damoh. The Income Tax Officer has been entrusted with the assessment and collection of three more taxes, namely, Wealth Tax, Gift Tax and Expenditure Tax, which have been brought into force recently. The assessment and collection of Estate Duty was also a part of the functions of the Income Tax Officer until 1954-55, when a separate Assistant Controller, of Estate Duty, of the rank of Income Tax Officer, was appointed with headquarters at Indore. The receipts from Income Tax have increased from Rs. 6,335 in 1890-91 to Rs. 46,449 in 1957-58 and Rs. 7,36, 523 in 1965-66, but fallen down to Rs. 4,93,012 in 1969-70. The receipts from Estate Duty are not substantial and it varied from year to year, i.e. it was Rs. 5,078 in 1958-59 which increased to Rs. 22,762 in 1961-62, but decreased to Rs. 1,038 in 1969-70.

Income from State Revenue

Certain important sources of State revenue not already discussed are State Excise, Forests, Sales Tax, Stamps, Taxes on Motor Vehicles and Registration. A brief account of these items of taxation is given below.

State Excise

Upto the year 1905, the outstill system was prevalent in the District for the supply of country liquor. Fifty-five outstills and 83 shops were licensed to retail liquor, this being at the rate of one shop for 34 suare miles of area and 3,400 persons as against the provincial figures of 12 square miles and 1,500 persons, respectively. The revenue from country spirits amounted to a little over Rs. 8,000 in 1894 and 1895, and Rs. 6,400 in 1903-04. The revenue from opium was a little more than Rs. 8,000 in 1892-93, but fell to Rs. 6,000 in the beginning of the next decade. It was Rs. 8,000 in 1903-04. The revenue from *ganja* decreased from Rs. 6,500 in 1893-94 to Rs. 2,700 in 1902-03, but again recovered to 4,700 in 1903-04. At present, the income under this head is derived from imported liquor, country spirit, fermented liquor, opium, *ganja*, and *bhang*. The income from this head was 16,041 in 1880-81, which reduced to Rs. 2,111 in 1956-57, but again went up to Rs. 8,65, 149 in 1969-70.

Sales Tax

This Tax was introduced in the District on Ist June, 1947, under the Central Provinces and Berar Sales Tax Act, 1947, (XXI of 1947), which has since been replaced by the Madhya Pradesh General Sales Tax Act 1958, (II of 1959). The latter Act was brought into force from the Ist of April 1959. The Central Sales Tax was also introduced in the District from Ist July, 1957, under the Central Sales Tax Act of 1956. Both these Acts are administered by the Sales Tax Officer, Sagar. The receipts under these Acts have been increasing from time to time. It increased from Rs. 77,392 in 1956-57 to Rs. 3,14,296 in 1957-58, but decreased to Rs. 1,27,166 in 1958-59. It further increased to Rs. 15,97,547 in 1969-70.

The increase in Sales Tax receipts from 1959-60 onward is due to the introduction of first-point taxation.

The contribution of forests to State Exchequer is substantial and is derived from timber and other produce removed by Government and consumers, purchasers and from other miscellaneous sources like cattle-grazing, etc. The income from forests had increased from Rs. 262,849 in 1956-57 to Rs. 43,02,422 in 1969-70. It was highest in 1968-69, i.e., Rs. 60,43,901.

Forests

The income under this head is derived from the registration of motor vehicles, issuse of licences to drivers, conductors, etc. The income from taxes on motor vehicles has increased from Rs. 16,286 in 1956-57 to Rs. 1,96,141 in 1969-70. The income under Registration is derived from registration fee, copying fee, etc., which are levied under the Indian Registration Act, 1908. The receipts from registration was Rs. 999 in 1880-81. It increased to Rs. 15,235 in 1956-57 and to Rs. 1,00,289 in 1969-70. The income under Stamps is from the sale of stamps of various denominations, both judicial and non-judicial. The total receipts amounted to Rs. 2,7152 only in 1880-81. It increased to Rs. 1,32,979 in 1957-58 and to Rs. 4,99,040 in 1969-70.

Taxes on motor vehicles, Registration, Stamps

CHAPTER XII

LAW AND ORDER AND JUSTICE

In 1818, when Damoh was ceded by the Marathas to the British and thus formed a part of the "Saugor and Nerbudda territories", the foundation for a regular system of law and justice on modern lines was firmly laid. Civil Justice was administered by a Judge and a native judicial staff framed after the model of the North-West Provinces, and consisting of Principal Suddar Ameens, Suddar Ameens and Munsiffs and under a Procedure Code prepared by A.A. Roberts when he held the office of Judge.[1]

Immediately after the formation of the Central Provinces in 1861 the posts of Principal Suddar Ameens, Suddar Ameens and Munsiffs were abolished and the Civil Procedure Code (Act VIII of 1859), was extended throughout the Provinces. This ensured a systematic and uniform administration of justice. The courts of original jurisdiction were located within the District, whereas those with appellate powers were located outside the District. At the headquarters of the District, i.e., at Damoh, the Deputy Commissioner and his assistants had their courts; and in the interior of the District there were the 'tahsildaree courts'. Damoh District was then in Sagar Division. The Commissioner, with his headquarters at Sagar had therefore appellate jurisdiction over this area. The Tahsildars, otherwise known as Sub-Collectors, were classified into two judicial grades for civil work, i.e., First Grade and Second Grade, according to their length of service and experience. As head of the District, the Deputy Commissioner supervised the administration of justice in the whole District. The position of various courts that existed in the District and their territorial jurisdiction are tabulated below.

Table No. XII—1

Powers of Different Courts

S. No.	Court	Territorial jurisdiction	Original jurisdiction	Appellate jurisdiction
1.	Tahsildar Grade II	Tahsil	Cases upto Rs. 100 in value	—
2.	Tahsildar Grade I	-do-	Cases upto Rs. 200 in value	—
3.	Assistant Commissioner Grade III	Part of the district	Cases upto Rs. 500 in value	—
4.	Assistant Commissioner Grade II	-do-	Cases upto Rs. 1,000 in value	—

1. C.P. Administration Report, 1862, p. 15.

5.	Assistant Commissioner Grade I	-do-	Cases upto Rs. 5,000 in value	—
6.	Deputy Commissioner	District	Cases above Rs. 5,000 in value	Appeals from Courts at 1 to 4.
7.	Commissioner (at Sagar)	Division	No ordinary original jurisdiction	Appeals from Courts at S. No. 5 and 6.
8.	Judicial Commissioner (at Nagpur)	Province	-do-	Appeals from Court at S. No. 7 and appellate cases from Courts at S. No. 6 and 7.

Source: C.P. Administration Report, 1872-73, p. 20.

The first step taken in the direction of reorganization of criminal judiciary in the newly constituted Central Provinces was the extension of the Code of Criminal Procedure (Act XXV of 1861) throughout the Provinces in 1862. As mentioned earlier, the executive staff of the District, namely, the Deputy Commissioner, Assistant Commissioner, Extra Assistant Commissioners and Tahsildars were also made responsible for the administration of criminal judiciary.

As in the case of civil judiciary, under cirminal judiciary also the Tahsildars were classified into two judicial grades. The first grade Tahsilar had powers of a subordinate magistrate of the 2nd or 1st class under section 22 of the Code of Criminal Procedure. Under the same section a second grade Tahsildar was empowered to function as a subordinate Magistrate, 2nd class. The Assistant and Extra-Assistant Commissioners enjoy powers of a subordinate Magistrate 1st or 2nd class. The Deputy Commissioner, as head of the district had full 1st class magisterial powers. He could try all cases except those punishable with death, and inflict any punishment upto seven years' imprisonment. He also had appellate powers over the subordinate magisterial courts. The Divisional Commissioner at Sagar had the powers of a Sessions Judge, and tried all cases committed to his court by the various magistrates.

The criminal courts mentioned above, save that of the Commissioner, were presided over by the respective officers singly, i,e., unassisted by either Jury or Assessors. However, in the Commissioner's Court (which functioned as a Sessions Court) he was assisted by two Assessors. Subsequently, the Naib-Tahsildars were appointed in tahsil places to assist the Tahsildars and they were vested with magisterial powers of 2nd class.

The extension of civil and criminal judiciary to the very interior of the District was further ensured by appointing prominent men of the locality as Honorary Magistrates, in 1862-63. For their general guidance, a Manual was also brought out in 1862. This arrangement enabled the speedy disposal of cases of a petty nature and also avoided the rush of work in the subordinate courts.

In 1863-64 the Divisions were reconstituted resulting in the formation of Nerbudda Division and the abolition of Sagar Division. Consequently Damoh was placed under Jabalpur Division, whose Commissioner had civil and criminal appellate jurisdiction over this District.

A noticeable peculiarity of this judicial set up was that, the same officers who handled civil judicial administration also had to perform magisterial and revenue duties. Consequently, much delay was experienced in the disposal of cases. Hence it was arranged, chiefly at the suggestion of the then Judicial Commissioner, J. Strachey, that all civil suits at the headquarters of the District were to be ordinarily tried by only one officer and the court was termed the Station Court, devoted to work of civil justice.[1]

The 'Station Court' was presided over by an Assistant or Extra-Assistant Commissioner, who was gradually invested with the highest powers an Assistant could legally exercise, and appeals against his decisions went directly to the Commissioner. This overburdened the Commissioner with appellate work. Therefore, the existing system was revised by the Chief Commissioner, and the Tahsildars at the headquarters of the District began to take up all civil suits within their powers. In addition, at the headquarters of the District the Station Court with higher powers was presided over by an Assistant or Extra-Assistant Commissioner, who had powers to hear all suits upto Rs. 500 or Rs. 1000 in value. Suits above Rs. 1000 in value were laid in the smaller districts in the Court of the Deputy Commissioner himself; in the larger districts they were laid in the Court of an Assistant Commissioner with powers of a court of the 5th class.[2]

On the criminal side the practice of holding a court presided over by a single officer was modified by Act X of 1872 which ruled that while trying important cases the magistrates should take the assistance of juries consisting of three persons. This was followed by the amendment of the Code of Criminal Procedure which further provided under section 36 thereof that the District Magistrate and other 1st Class magistrates, namely, the Deputy Commissioner, Assistant Commissioner and Extra Assistant Commissioners, could exercise 'summary powers'. Subsequently, such powers were also extended to the Honorary Magistrates. The Central Provinces Civil Courts Act of 1885 empowered the local Government to appoint Judicial Assistants, Civil Judges and Munsiffs, with all or any of the powers of Commissioners, Deputy Commissioners and Tahsildars, respectively.

By 1885-86 Munsiffs' Courts for civil work were established at tahsil places where civil work was very heavy. They partly or fully enjoyed the powers of a Tahsildar. In 1889-90, Naib-Tahsildars were invested with civil powers

1. ibid. 1863-64, p. 30.
2. Ibid. 1872-73, p. 8.

under Section II of Act XVI of 1885. To regulate criminal judiciary instructions were issued in 1890 that the Deputy Commissioner should take up only those cases himself where caste, religious or communal feelings were involved. With the appointment of the Judicial Assistants to the Commissioners (for appellate civil and criminal cases) in 1892 the Commissioner of Jabalpur Division was mostly relieved of appellate and session cases.

An important reform in civil judiciary was introduced in 1900-01 and the work of civil justice was entrusted to officers with no revenue or magisterial work.

To sum up, the District of Damoh had a civil judicial staff which consisted of a District Judge and a Subordinate Judge, both of whom had also magisterial powers. A Munsiff was appointed to each tahsil, but in 1904 it was arranged that both should sit at Damoh with jurisdiction over the whole District in order to obtain a more equal distribution of work.

The Central Provinces Courts Act, 1904 was amended by Act XI of 1910 which provided that Benches of two Judges should sit to hear appeals from persons sentenced to death and for the confirmation of death sentences. This was followed by the creation of posts of Sub-Divisional Magistrates in 1911-12. The Assistant and Extra-Assistant Commissioners were placed in charge of tahsils and were vested with the powers of Sub-Divisional Magistrates.

The year 1917 was signalized by the division of the whole province into nine Civil Districts, each under a District and Sessions Judge, one of such headquarters being at Sagar. Damoh was placed under the jurisdiction of the District and Sessions Judge, Sagar.

On 1st October, 1931, Damoh was reduced to a Sub-Division and was amalgamated with Sagar District, an arrangement which continued till 1956. In 1932 the post of District and Sessions Judge, Sagar was abolished and the jurisdiction of the District and Sessions Judge, Jabalpur, was extended to Damoh. With effect from 9th January, 1936, the Court of the Judicial Commissioner at Nagpur became a chartered High Court. On 31st October, 1956, Damoh was again constituted into a separate district. With the passing of the M.P. Civil Courts Act, 1958 (No. 19 of 1958) the following civil courts started functioning in the District.

1. Court of the District Judge
2. Court of the Additional District Judge
3. Court of the Civil Judge Class I
4. Court of the Civil Judge Class II

According to the same act the pecuniary powers of the courts were also defined.

Incidence of Crimes

The crime situation in the District is not serious. Leaving aside the exceptional crimes like dacoity, robbery and murder, the crimes of common occurrence in the District, ranging according to their total number, are ordinary thefts, house-breaking, cattle theft and kidnapping. During the past few years these crimes have been showing a fluctuation, their trend occasionally being upward. The table below traces the history of crime incidence in the District from 1901 to 1971.

Table No. XII—2

Incidence of Crimes

Year	Dacoity	Robbery	Murder	Kidnapping and rape	House Breaking	Ordinary theft	Cattle theft
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
1901	—	13	2	—	98	—	70
1911	—	10	12	—	34	—	27
1921	—	11	21	—	136	—	18
1931	—	22	27	—	131	—	51
1961	2	6	26	5	156	295	27
1967	11	20	16	13	203	204	31
1968	12	13	23	11	250	326	45
1969	7	8	29	7	115	237	30
1970	3	9	26	8	174	197	101
1971	7	16	19	14	190	208	36

Note:—Figures for the years 1941 and 1951 are not available separately as Damoh had ceased to exist as independent revenue district during the decade. Source: Superintendent of Police, Damoh.

Dacoity

The highest number of dacoities were committed in 1968 12 followed by 11 in 1967. The number of cases of this offence in other years is not, however, alarming.

Robbery

Starting with 13 in 1901 the number of such cases came down to 10 in 1911 which increased to 11 in 1921 and shot up to 22 in 1931. Between 1958 and 1964 the number of cases under this head varied from 2 to 7. However, during 1955 and 1966, it again showed an upward trend increasing to 18 and 20, respectively.

Murder

The number of murders rose from 2 in 1901 to 12 in 1911, 21 in 1921 and 27 in 1931. From the year 1958 the crimes under this head registered a gradual fall and their number was 16 in 1966.

House Breaking

The year 1901 registered 98 offences under this head which rose to 134 in 1911 and to 136 in 1921. The figures showed a fluctuation in the following years. During 1965 and 1966 the number stood at 180 and 203, respectively.

Table No. XII—3

Crime Situation

Year	No. of cases reported	No. of cases investigated	No. of cases sent up for trial	No. of persons tried	No. of persons acquitted or discharged	No. of persons convicted
1961	903	877	659	1 003	454	549
1962	871	839	630	648	382	266
1963	922	879	770	991	660	331
1964	1,008	975	797	1,098	653	445
1965	784	749	494	1.034	406	348
1966	855	832	495	992	238	107

Source: Superintendent of Police, Damoh.

Coming to offences involving property which include ordinary thefts and others, the highest number was in 1964 (561). There were 418 such cases in 1961, 481 in 1962 and 420 in 1963. As against this, property stolen was recovered in 223 cases in 1961, 206 in 1962, 177 in 1963 and 238 in 1964. The following Table will show details of such cases and the amount of property stolen and recovered.

Table No. XII—4

Stolen Property

Year	No. of cases of property stolen	No. of cases of property recovered	Percentage of cases of property recovered to stolen	Total value of property stolen Rs.	Total value of property recovered Rs.	Percentage of value recovered to stolen
1961	418	223	53.3	99,317	18,489	18.00
1966	450	210	46.6	115,691	49,335	31.00
1967	314	148	47.00	39,201	22,197	56.00
1968	206	91	44.00	31 146	14,558	48.00
1969	243	106	46.00	62,057	16,280	38.00
1970	160	70	43.00	22,345	6,008	37.00

Source: Superintendent of Police, Damoh.

The miscellaneous thefts recorded in the District of Damoh include stealing of copper wire, cattle thefts, cycles, motorcycles and accessories, fire-arms, etc. The total number of such offences was 45 in 1961. Cattle thefts alone contributed 76 cases to the total number of all such offences in 1964.

Such being the crime situation with regard to offences against property, human body and public tranquillity, offences against local Acts, such as Excise Act, Gambling Act, Prohibition Act, etc., also constitute a sizable number. These crimes present the following statistics.

Table No. XII—5

Crimes under Special Acts

Year	Excise Act		Gambling Act		Prohibition Act	
	Cases	Persons	Cases	Persons	Cases	Persons
1961	74	74	64	336	93	96
1966	40	41	86	446	125	137
1967	68	74	152	827	95	97
1968	32	36	166	648	—	—
1969	30	36	356	680	—	—
1970	24	26	263	498	1	1

Source: Superintendent of Police, Damoh.

It will be seen that cases under the Prohibition Act generally out-number cases under the other two Acts.

Organisation of the Police Force

The earliest systematic attempts to organise the police force were made in the beginning of the British period by Mensell in 1854, and Station Houses and outposts were established at convenient centres. In 1869, a probationary system of 6 months' duration was introduced for the newly recruited constables, and the passing of the lowest standard of examination was insisted upon. In 1869 also a training school for he Moharrirs was opened at Sagar which was later abolished in 1891,

In 1906 the police force consisted of 322 officers and men including three mounted constables. The force included ordinary reserves of two head-constables and 20 constables at headquarters. At the district level, the District Superintendent of Police was the senior most police officer, assisted by 2 Inspectors, 6 Sub-Inspectors and 52 Head Constables. It is stated that in proportion to its area and population, Damoh had a strong police force, the figures being one policeman for every nine square miles and 886 persons in the District as against one policeman for every 10 square miles and 1,128 persons

in the Province as a whole. The annual maintenance cost of the police force was Rs. 50,000. The District had 9 Station-Houses and 15 outposts. The Station-Houses were located at Damoh, Tejgarh, Jabera, Patharia and Tendukheda in Damoh Tahsil and at Hatta, Sitangar, Hindoria and Mariadoh in Hatta Tahsil. These were under the charge of one Sub-Inspector each.

Present Set-up of Police

From 1968 the District Executive Force included one Superintendent of Police in charge of the whole District. He is responsible for maintaining Law and Order in the District. He is assisted by a Deputy Superintendent of Police who is in charge of the office as well as Police Stations, except those at Damoh, Nohta and Jabera. There are two Circle Inspectors in charge of Damoh and Hatta Circles, respectively. Damoh Circle includes 7 Police Stations at Damoh, Patharia, Hindoria, Nohta, Jabera, Tejgarh and Tendukheda. Hatta Circle has 7 Police Stations, namely, Hatta, Mariadoh, Batiagarh, Gaisabad, Kumhari, Patera, Rajpura and an outpost at Sadpur.

A Sub-Inspector is usually in charge of a Police Station and he is assisted by an additional Sub-Inspector where the work is heavy. The following Table gives the strength and cost of the District Police in Damoh District for selected years from 1961 to 1970.

Table No. XII-6
Strength and Cost of Civil Police

Year	Supdts, A.S.Ps. & D.S.Ps.	Inspector, S. I. & A.S.Is.	Sergeants and N.Cs.	Foot Constables	Total	Total Expenditure on Maintenance
1961	2	34	68	334	438	6,02,346
1967	2	28	83	374	487	9,49,153
1968	2	28	82	370	482	10,98,604
1969	2	28	82	370	482	11,45,354
1970	3	31	76	370	480	15,59,645

Source: Superintendent of Police, Damoh.

Besides this, the District has been provided with a Prosecution Branch, District Crime Branch and District Special Branch. The Prosecution Branch consists of one Police Prosecutor at the headquarters for whole of the District and three Assistant Police Prosecutors for conducting Police cases in the courts. The District Crime Branch has one Sub-Inspector, one Assistant Sub-Inspector, two Head Constables and three Constables to help the local police in the detection and prevention of professional crimes. The District Special Branch includes one Sub-Inspector, three Head Constables and one Constable, whose main duty is to keep a watch over the activities of political parties.

The Special Armed Force, Prohibition Squad, etc., are not part of the District force. However, Hatta Tahsil being a dacoity infested area, one company of Special Armed Force has been posted at five different points in this area for anti-dacoity work. This company of the Special Armed Force is posted in the District since 1962. In 1963 the unit consisted of one Company Commandant, three Platoon Commadants, 22 Head Constables, 95 Cavalry Constables and 9 foot Constables.

Home Guards

This organisation is acting as a secondary force to the Police Force. The scheme has been operating in this District since 1948. It is under the control of Company Commandant, Home Guards. The number of persons trained during recent years was :—

Table No. XII-7

Number of Homeguards Trained

Year	No. of Sainiks trained	No. of N.C.O. trained
1967	46	6
1968	23	2
1969	24	1
1970	49	5
1971	78	7

Jails and Lock-Ups

At present there is a District Jail at Damoh. The Civil Surgeon functions as *ex-officio* Superintendent of Jail. He is assisted by a number of Deputy and Assistant Jailors, head warders and warders. All the staff is provided with residential accommodation within the Jail premises In addition, the class IV staff is also provided with free uniform.

As early as in 1906, Damoh had a 4th class District Jail with accommodation for 125 prisoners including 16 females. During the years 1901, 1902, and 1903 the daily average number of prisoners was 55,51 and 44, respectively, including an average of 6 or 7 under-trial prisoners. In 1904, the daily average was 59. Aloe pounding and rope-making were the industries carried on in the jail. The raw fibre found a ready sale in the local market.

During the opening years of the decade, the highest number of prisoners was 114 in 1964 including one female, followed by 88 prisoners in 1963. Similarly, the highest number of prisoners received was in 1963, when a total of 439 convicts, including 12 females, were added to the prison population. Most of these prisoners, as usual, were under-trials. The number of prisoners dis-

charged in 1964 takes first place when 497 persons, including 14 females were discharged from all causes. The number of prisoners remaining at the close of every year shows a gradual increase in general. Though the tendency towards crimes cannot be ruled out altogether, the rise in number can be attributed to urbanisation, increase in population and to the general awareness of the public in reporting crimes to the Police. The table in the Appendix shows details regarding the number of prisoners.

Educational Facilities

In a school provided inside the prison, most of the literate prisoners, under-trials as well as convicts, take advantage of the facilities of adult education. This school is provided with books on various subjects. Prisoners are allowed to read these books during their leisure hours. Besides, two daily newspapers and some weekly magazines are also provided for the literate prisoners. In the evening, facilities for games like volleyball and other indoor games are also available. For recreation there is a radio set in this Jail and the prisoners are given opportunity to listen to the various programmes, everday.

The State Government have also provided this jail with a Reformist Preacher who imparts religious and social preachings to the inmates with a view to bringing a change in the minds of the criminals and making them realise their evils. In this way it makes them conscious of their duties towards society. The very texture of jail life has changed according to the new system of penal reform. The old conception of punishment for the sake of punishment has more or less been abandoned. The present system of reforming the criminals by eduction, industry and social education is being followed in this jail as elsewhere in the State.

Organisation of Civil and Criminal Courts

As mentioned earlier, the head of the Civil District of Sagar, also comprising Damoh revenue district is the District and Sessions Judge, Sagar. The various civil and criminal courts in the District are subordinate to that of the District and Sessions Judge.

The following courts are periodically located in the District.

1. Court of Additional District and Sessions Judge, Damoh.

2. Courts of Civil Judge, Class I and Additional District Magistrate (Judicial), Damoh.

This is a link court. The Civil Judge, Class I and Additional District Magistrate (Judicial), Sagar, visits Damoh and holds court for six days every alternate month.

3. Courts of Civil Judges, Class II.
   (a) First Civil Judge, Class II and Magistrate First Class, Damoh.
   (b) Second Civil Judge, Class II and Magistrate First Class, Damoh.
   (c) Third Civil Judge, Class II and Magistrate First Class, Damoh. This again is a link court between Damoh and Rehli in the Sagar revenue district. The Judge functions as Magistrate First class at Relhi for 12 days a month.
   (d) Civil Judge Class II, and Magistrate First Class, Hatta.

To sum up, there are, in all, 6 courts located in the District.

Nyaya Panchayats

The Nyaya Panchayats which are functioning now as ancillary civil and criminal courts in the interior of the District came into being with the passage of the C P. and Berar Panchayats Act 1846 (I of 1947). The establishment of these courts afforded great relief to the litigant public as they disposed of many cases of small cause nature. The Nyaya Panchayats exercise civil powers upto a limit of Rs. 100 in value. On the criminal side they can try cases under certain sections of the Indian Penal Code and can impose a fine of Rs. 50. No legal practitioner can appear before the Nyaya Panchayats. The decision of the Nyaya Panchayat is not appealable. Applications for revisions can, however, be filed with the Civil Judge, Class I or other Judges, as the case may be. Consequent on the establishment of these courts the courts of Honorary Magistrates were abolished.

The new M.P. Panchayats Act 1962 has enhanced the powers of the Nyaya Panchayats further on the criminal side. They are now empowered to inflict fines not exceeding one hundred rupees in respect of an offence under I.P.C. 1860, and, in respect of offences under other Acts mentioned in the schedule, fines not exceeding one hundred rupees subject to the maximum permissible under such Act.

There are in all 26 Nyaya Panchayats functioning in the District now—16 in Damoh tahsil and 10 in Hatta Tahsil as under:

Damoh Tahsil —

(1) Patharia, (2) Kishanganj, (3) Sitanagar, (4) Hirdepur, (5) Bansa-Tarkheda, (6) Mudia, (7) Bandakpur, (8) Abhana, (9) Tori, (10) Pura, (11) Jabera, (12) Singhpur, (13) Rond, (14) Tejgarh, (15) Tendukheda, (16) Taradehi.

Hatta Tahsil:

(1) Madiadoh, (2) Hinota Kalan, (3) Raneh (4) Rasilpur (5) Patera (6) Kumhari (7) Luhari, (8) Fatehpur (9) Phutera, (10) Khaderi.

Separation of Judiciary from the Executive

As mentioned earlier, the civil judiciary was separated completely from the Executive during the early years of the present century. The criminal judiciary, however, continued to be one with the Executive for many more years. All the same, efforts were afoot to separate it from Executive. The first step taken in this direction was the appointment of Judge-Magistrates in accordance with Government's decision in the early 1950's. Certain revenue Officers were invested with First Class magisterial powers exclusively for criminal judicial work. The work of these Judge-Magistrates alongwith that of other magistrates was subject to the periodical checking by the District and Sessions Judge.

The separation thus begun was further ensured when the State decided to have a separate class of service called 'Judicial Service' in accordance with the provision of Chapter VI of the Constitution. The District Judges are now appointed by the Governor in consultation with the High Court, and other posts subordinate to the District Judge, through recruitment by the Public Service Commission according to the rules framed by the Governor in consultation with High Court.

Thus, Damoh District saw a final and complete separation of Judiciary from the Executive on 15th July, 1964. This, however, did not deprive the Executive officers completely of their magisterial powers, for they exercise such powers in the prevention of crimes and maintenance of Law and Order. The Collector is thus the District Magistrate. The Deputy Collectors, Tahsildars and Naib Tahsildars also enjoy magisterial powers. However, in the judicial parlance these magistrates are known as Executive Magistrates, distinguishing them from the Judicial Magistrates who are exclusively meant for criminal judiciary. And for the exclusive criminal judicial work the Civil Judges Class I and Class II are vested with First Class magisterial powers and are designated as Judicial Magistrates.

Nature of Cases Handled

The various courts in the District handled both civil and criminal cases. Offences under the Indian Penal Code, special and local laws, and those under the Criminal Procedure Code constituted the criminal cases in the District, whereas suits for money and moveable property, title and other suits constituted the civil cases.

Criminal Cases

The total number of offences reported under the Indian Penal Code, Special and Local Laws and Criminal Procedure Code in 1962 was 2,262. In subsequent years, i.e. 1969, 1970 and 1971 this number was 2663, 2568 and 2803, respectively. So also the magistrates disposed of 1673 cases in 1962; 2835 in 1969; 2262 in 1970 and 2449 in 1971. The number of offences recorded under those affecting human body,

against property, affecting public health and relating to religion also showed an upward trend. Starting with 17 in 1962, the number of offences affecting human body rose to 44 in 1963, 56 in 1964 and 182 in 1965, while that against property increased from 6 in 1963 to 138 in 1965. Offences affecting public health also gradually increased from 1962 to 1965, registering 8,6,11 and 24 cases, respectively. However, the District was free from offences relating to religion during this period. The punishments included fines, imprisonment and death sentences. The year 1964 recorded the highest number of punishments, save death sentences.

The original and appellate cases decided by the court of sessions will present the following statistics.

Table No. XII—8

Criminal Cases

Year	Original		Appellate	
	Regular	Miscellaneous	Regular	Miscellaneous
1961	—	—	31	3
1966	44	17	126	26
1967	46	13	155	44
1968	21	14	112	17
1969	—	—	204	64
1970	—	—	170	34

The number of suits disposed by various courts during the period 1969 to 1971 is given below.

Table No. XII—9

No. of Suits Disposed

	1969	1970	1971
1. By District Courts	13	12	18
2. By Subordinate Civil Courts	197	446	290
3. By Courts of Small Causes	455	383	360
4 Total	655	841	668

The total number of suits instituted was the highest in 1967 being 564, followed by 530 in 1968, 523 in 1966 and 411 in 1961. The following table shows the number of pending civil suits and their disposal during the period 1951 to 1968.

Table No. XII—10

Pending Civil Suits and their Disposal

	Year					
	1961	1966	1967	1968	1969	1970
1. Suits pending at the beginning of the year	367	350	309	286	466	777
2. Instituted during the year	411	513	564	530	694	588
3. Total for disposal	778	863	930	911	1069	1365
4. Disposed of	391	555	587	535	665	841

Legal Profession and Bar Association

Before the year 1863-64, there were no law graduates at Damoh. Legal practice was carried on by some unlicensed and even uneducated practitioners. The Judicial Commissioner of Central Provinces, therefore, issued orders which required that persons desirous of practising law should pass a prescribed examination. "In Saugor-Nerbudda Territories, regular native pleaders—attorneys, vakeels and *mukhtyars*—have been allowed. Accordingly, a Board of Examiners was constituted which issued certificates to the successful candidates. This eliminated the element of unlicensed and uneducated pleaders. The pleaders Act of 1865 was extended to the Central Provinces in 1879. In the same year the Legal Practitioners Act (No. XVIII of 1879) was passed. Examinations now began to be held under this new Act. From 1881-82, uncertified *Mukhtyars* and petition writers were excluded from the precincts of the courts under new rules. The Bar consisted of law graduates from Indian and foreign universities and advocates of Indian High Courts who were granted *Sanads* without requiring any other test of proficiency. With a view to binding the members of the Bar to the faithful discharge of their duties, a form of oath was prescribed by the Government to which all pleaders and advocates were asked to subscribe.

Bar Associations

There are two Bar Associations functioning in the District, one at Damoh and another at Hatta. At present there are 29 members in Damoh Bar and 2 in Hatta Bar Association. Any person who is a registered pleader or advocate can be enrolled as a member of these Bar Associations on payment of prescribed fees.

CHAPTER XIII

OTHER DEPARTMENTS

The organisational set-up of some of the important offices of the Government of Madhya Pradesh and Statutory Bodies in the District is given below.

Agriculture

The Deputy Director of Agriculture is responsible for the organisation of all Agricultural activities in the District. He also offers technical guidance to the Agriculture Extension Officers of the Development Blocks. The staff of the Agriculture Department in the District is under the administrative control of the Joint Director of Agriculture, Jabalpur, and the execution of work is to be done under the general guidance of the Collector, Damoh. In the field work, the Deputy Director of Agriculture is assisted by 29 Agriculture Assistants, seven Demonstration Kamdars and usual staff. The other staff provided is engaged in the demonstration and propaganda work, and distribution of seed and manures.

In addition, there are two Soil Conservation Sub-Divisions in the District with their headquarters at Damoh and Hatta, respectively. These two Sub-Divisions are controlled by the Deputy Director of Agriculture, Damoh. Mention may also be made of the two farms situated at Damoh and Jabera. The farm at Damoh is a Seed and Demonstration Farm covering an area of 155.52 acres. It is looked after by a Farm Superintendent with the help of two Demonstration Kamdars and other usual staff. The other farm, the Seed Multiplication Farm at Jabera, is managed by a Farm Manager with the help of one Demonstration Kamdar and usual staff. The District had notable success in *Rabi* and *Kharif* campaigns. It was the recipient of an award for *Rabi* campaign in 1958-59. In the following year the District was again the recipient of double awards of Rs. 10,000 each for the *Rabi* as well as *Kharif* campaigns.

In order to implement the Soil Conservation Schemes and to conserve soil and moisture, the whole of Damoh District was under the charge of an Assistant Soil Conservation Officer till September, 1963. Subsequently, the District has been divided into two sub-divisions, each under the charge of an Assistant Soil Conservation Officer, with their headquarters at Damoh and Hatta, respectively. In their work they are assisted by Agricultural Assistants (Soil Conservation) and usual staff.

Soil Conservation

Administratively, they are under the control of the Deputy Director of Agriculture, Sagar, with his headquarters at Sagar. In 1966-67 the Assistant Soil Conservation Officer, Damoh, was being assisted by 32 executive staff including five Agricultural Assistants in charge of Soil Conservation in various Blocks and usual staff. The Contour Bunding Projects are being implemented under Rural Works Programme and Contour Bunding Scheme.

Veterinary

The District Livestock Officer is in charge of the activities of the department in Damoh District, and is working under the immediate administrative control of the Deputy Director, Veterinary Services, Jabalpur. He is assisted by three Assistant Veterinary Surgeons, five Veterinary Compounders, one Stock Supervisor, nine Stockmen and other professional staff. In 1966 there were six Veterinary Hospitals, ten Veterinary Dispensaries and a Mobile Unit functioning in the District. Further more, the District has one Artificial Insemination Centre and three Cattle Breeding Extension Units. One *Gosudan* and one Quarantine Station for animals are also functioning in the District.

Forest Department

Damoh Forest Division, which was abolished and merged with Sagar Forest Division in 1936-37, was revived with effect from 16th January, 1956. The limits of the Division extend to all the manageable and notified forests of the District, and is headed by a Divisional Forest Officer with his headquarters at Damoh The Divisional Forest Officer is subordinate to the Conservator of Forest, Central Circle, Madhya Pradesh, with headquarters at Jabalpur, and is responsible for protection, exploitation, regeneration, and maintenance of forests under his control.

The Division is divided into Ranges, which are further sub-divided into Range Assistant Circles. The latter areagain divided into Forest Guard Beats. The following Table gives details of these divisions.

Table No. XIII—1

Forest Ranges—Damoh

Range	Area (Sq miles)		No. of Assistant Range Circles	No. of Beats
	Reserved	Protected		
Hatta	187.29	60.02	4	32
Damoh	101.81	90.9	4	35
Tendukhera	178.33	78 68	3	17
Taradehi	167.68	14.20	3	16
Singrampur	81.07	77.14	3	23
Sagoni	71.79	94.09	3	17
Tejgarh			2	16
Jhalon			2	13
	Total		24	169

The Divisional Forest Officer is assisted in his work by 3 Assistant Conservators of Forest, 12 Forest Rangers, 12 Deputy Rangers, 36 Foresters and 257 Forest Guards posted at various places in the Division. Each Range is in charge of a Range Officer and each Range Assistant's Circle is in charge of a Deputy Ranger or a Range Assistant. The Forest Guards are posted in a Forest Guards Beat or a forest *Naka* (check-post). In addition to the staff in territorial charge, the remaining executive personnel are posted to carry out the Plan works and other special duties.

In addition to the regular duties of conservation, planned exploitation of forests and commercial management, the Division developed 195 acres by afforestation of catchment areas, 201.5 acres by teak plantation and 34 acres by Felling Series gap plantation in the ex-*Malguzari* forests during the Second Five Year Plan period.

Public Works Department

The Department is bifurcated into two branches, namely, (i) Irrigation and (ii) Roads and Buildings.

Irrigation

The Office of the Executive Engineer, Irrigation, Damoh was established in 1956 with headquarters at Damoh. The Executive Engineer has jurisdiction over Damoh and Sagar districts. This office works under the control of the Superintending Engineer, Narmada Circle. Jabalpur, who in his turn is controlled by the Chief Engineer, Public Works Department, Irrigation Branch, Bhopal.

The Division comprises four Sub-Divisions. (i) Maintenance Sub-Division, Damoh, (ii) Minor Sub-Division, Damoh, (iii) Minor Sub-Division, Sagar, and (iv) Scarcity Sub-Division, Sagar. Of these, the first two Sub-Divisions fall within the District of Damoh. Each Sub-Division is in the charge of a Sub-Divisional Officer of the rank of an Assistant Engineer. Thus, the Executive Engineer in his work is assisted by four Sub-Divisional Officers, one Divisional Accountant, a number of Overseers and Sub-Overseers and usual staff.

The total number of tanks maintained by the Division in Damoh District from 1956 to 1966 is 27 and the total number of regulators 9. Together these have an irrigation potential of 36,394 acres.

Buildings and Roads

The office of the Executive Engineer, Public Works Department, Buildings and Roads, Damoh Division, Damoh was created in 1964. This office is headed by an Executive Engineer and is subordinate to the office of the Superintending Engineer, Jabalpur Circle, Jabalpur. A Divisional Accountant, one Draftsman, one Assistant Draftsman, one Tracer and usual office staff assist the Executive Engineer. The Executive Engineer is responsible for the maintenance, improvement, upgradation and construction of roads, bridges, culverts and Govern-

ment buildings in Damoh District. He is also responsible for carrying out the Anti-Dacoity Roads Plan, Development Schemes and Non-Plan Schemes.

The Division is divided into four Sub-Divisions, namely, Road Sub-Division No. 1, Hatta, Road Sub-Division No. II, Damoh, Damoh Sub-Division, Damoh and Scarcity Sub-Division, Damoh, each in charge of a Sub-Divisional Officer of the rank of an Assistant Engineer. The Sub-Divisional Officers have separate offices with independent charges and separate staff which consists of junior Engineers, Overseers, Sub-Overseers, Time Keepers, Draftsmen, Tracers and other office staff and work-charged staff.

During the last five years ending March 31, 1967, the construction of Bearma Bridge on Mile 43 of Panna-Ajaigarh-Gaisabad Road can be quoted as one of the major achievements. The Harat Bridge over the Sonar river on Hatta-Fatehpur-Rajpura Road is also likely to be completed soon.

Electricity

An Assistant Engineer of Madhya Pradesh Electricity Board, stationed at Damoh, is in charge of the distribution of electricity and maintenance of installation in the District of Damoh, and Garhakota in Sagar district. The office of the Assistant Engineer, Damoh, was established in 1962. He is administratively under the control of the Divisional Engineer, Madhya Pradesh Electricity Board, Sagar. In his work the Assistant Engineer is assisted by five Officers-in-charge, posted at Damoh, Hatta, Hindoria, Patharia and Garhakota, besides 58 Technical subordinates. During the years from 1961-62 to 1965-66, eleven villages have been electrified.

Assistant Fishery Officer

The office of the Assistant Fishery Officer, Damoh, was established in 1964-65. Prior to this, there was a sub-office of the Fisheries Inspector functioning under the supervision of the Fishery Officer, Sagar. The Assistant Fishery Officer has jurisdiction over the whole of Damoh District. The office is under the administrative control of the Assistant Director of Fisheries, with headquarters at Sagar. The Assistant Fishery Officer, in his work, is assisted by two Fishery Inspectors.

The aims of the Office are to carry out pisciculture work in the departmental tanks in the District and to extend and improve pisciculture by private pisciculturists, such as Gram Panchayats and Fishermen Co-operative Societies. The Assistant Fishery Officer supervises the fish-exploitation work, rearing and stocking of fish seed, organisation and functioning of good fish marketing co-operative societies, etc.

Industries

Prior to April 1, 1964 there was no separate District Office of Industries in Damoh District. Subsequently an office headed by an Inspector of Industries

was established in the District. The Inspector was under the administrative control of an Assistant Director of Industries Sagar/Damoh, with his headquarters at Sagar.

The industrial activities in the District are looked after by an Assistant Director of Industries, two Extension Officers (Industries) and usual staff.

The District Industries Office arranges for financial assistance in the form of loans and subsidies to industrial units of both individuals and co-operative societies, besidesrendering all possible assistance to entrepreneurs in setting up new industries. Sometimes the office recommends subsidies on power consumption for industrial purposes. The department helps promotion of Small-Scale Industries by arranging for the supply of machinery on hire-purchase system, recommending the issue of import licences and allotment of quota of controlled commodities, and by assisting the marketing of their products.

A Small-Scale Semi-Urban Industrial Estate having five sheds is constructed at Damoh. The construction of one Rural Workshed at Jabera has also been sanctioned. One Government Tannery Hall equipped with modern machines and modern type of tanning has also been established at Damoh.

Cooperation

The Office of the Assistant Registrar, Co-operative Societies, Damoh was established in 1958. He works under the administrative control of the Divisional Deputy Registrar, Co-operative Societies, Jabalpur, who, in his turn, is subordinate to the Registrar, Co-operative Societies, Bhopal. The Assstant Registrar is assited by four Senior Co-operative Inspectors, one Marketing Inspector, one Special Officer (pilot), ten Co-operative Inspectors, one Taccavi Inspector, eleven Sub-Auditors, two valuers, one Statistical Assistant, one Government Manager of Multipurpose Co-operative Societies, one Circle Auditor (Handloom), one Sub-Auditor (Handloom), and the other usual staff. The main function of the department is to promote Co-operation activities and to undertake registration, amalgamation, audit, inspection and liquidation of co-operative societies.

The office receives District Plan of the Co-operative Department from the Registrar, Co-operative Societies, Madhya Pradesh, Bhopal, every year. This office has to break-up the said District-Plan Blockwise and fix up physical and financial targets for their achievement in each Block of the District and supervise their progress.

In every Development Block there is one Extension Officer for co-operation for assisting the Block Incharge (Co-ordinator Extension Officer) in the implementation of the above schemes.

There are two Marketing, eight Better-farming, 13 Large-sized, 16 Farming, 240 Village Service, and one Labour Co-operative Society in the District. Besides these, a Land Mortgage Bank is also functioning at Damoh.

Tribal Welfare

The District Tribal Welfare office is headed by a District Tribal Welfare Assistant who works under the supervision of the Collector and under the direction of the Director, Tribal Welfare, Madhya Pradash, Bhopal. The Department looks after the welfare and social, cultural and economic upliftment of people in the categories of Scheduled Castes, Scheduled Tribes and Other Backward Classes. The main functions of the Department have been the grant of stipends, scholarships, fees and books, running of hostels, grant of agricultural subsidies, construction of wells in tribal areas, construction of sweeper-quarters through Local Bodies, construction of Model houses, and running of Multipurpose Co-operative Society and Forest Labourers' Co-operative Society at Bamhori and Singrampur.

The District Tribal Welfare Assistant is assisted by a Circle Organiser and usual office staff. Two Managers of Forest Labour Co-operative Societies and a Balwadi teacher also come under his administrative jurisdiction besides a Superintendent of Tribal Hostel.

Panchayat and Social Welfare

The District Panchayats and Welfare Officer, who works under the departmental control of the Divisional Panchayats and Welfare Officer, Jabalpur, and under the supervision of the Collector, Damoh is responsible for the proper functioning of the Gram Panchayats and Nyaya Panchayats in the District. He is also responsible for the progress of Social Welfare and Social Education Programmes launched in the District. For the execution of the work relating to Panchayats and Social Education, he is assisted by eight Panchayat Extension Officers including one Lady Social Education Organiser posted at Development Block headquarters, one Manager of District Shelter Home, two Sub-Auditors, 21 Gram Sevaks and 12 Gram Sevikas and usual staff.

Shelter Home

The District Shelter Home, Damoh, receives the inmates of the correctional and non-correctional institutions situated in the districts of Damoh, Sagar, Narsimhapur, Seoni, and Jabalpur. It acts as a feeding centre to the different Shelter Homes of the State.

The department had, by 1970-71, established 205 Gram Panchayats and 26 Nyaya Panchayats. It also gives grant-in-aid to the various social, cultural, and literacy organisations in the District.

Publicity

The District Publicity Office is manned by an Assistant Public Relations Officer and usual staff. The office is under the supervision of the Collector,

Damoh, and is administratively under the control of the Public Relations Officer, Sagar. The main function of this office is to give wide publicity to Five Year Plans through various media, namely, distribution of literature, booklets and pamphlets, cinema shows, exhibitions, etc.

Employment Exchange

An Employment Exchange, which is functioning at Damoh since June, 1964, exercises jurisdiction over the entire District. The Exchange is headed by an Employment Officer, who is assisted by a Junior Employment Officer with headquarters at Tendukheda, and a Statistical Assistant and other subordinate staff. The Director of Employment and Training, Madhya Pradesh, Jabalpur, controls the working of the Exchange. The Exchange mainly works as a liaison body between the employment-seekers and the prospective employers. With a view to collecting regular and reliable employment information, Employment Market Information Scheme has been launched in the District. The information thus collected is used to analyse the employment trends in the District.

An Employment Information and Assistance Bureau is functioning in Tendukheda Development Block in the charge of a Junior Employment Officer.

Employment and Information Bureau

Its main objective is dissemination of information about urban and rural employment markets. It also assists rural employment-seekers in securing suitable jobs.

Weights and Measures

The office of the Inspector of Weights and Measures was established with a view to introducing Metric weights and measures in the District, in 1961. There are two offices of Inspector, Weights and Measures in the District with headquarters at Damoh and Hatta, respectively, having jurisdiction over the respective tahsils. Administratively, these offices are under the Controller, Weights and Measures, Madhya Pradesh, Bhopal.

The Inspectors inspect the shops and establishments to verify that the correct Metric weights and measures are in use. They realise the fees and bring the defaulters to book. In Damoh the system has been enforced in about 95% urban centres and to a large extent in rural areas.

Sales Tax

The office of the Assistant Sales Tax Officer, Damoh, was established in 1964 with Damoh as its headquarters. The Assistant Sales Tax Officer is under the administrative control of the Sales Tax Officer, Sagar Circle with headquarters at Sagar. The Officer-in-Charge has to propose the tax liability of new dealers, assess the dealers every year and recover the Sales Tax dues. In his work, the Assistant Sales Tax Officer is assisted by one Sales Tax Inspector and the usual staff.

In 1965-66 the revenue of this office had shown an increase of 25 per cent over that of 1964, the year of its establishment. This office has also been entrusted with the work under the Madhya Pradesh *Vriti, Vyapar, Aajivika, Aur Sewayojan Kar Adhiniyam* from Ist April, 1966.

CHAPTER XIV

LOCAL SELF GOVERNMENT

Introduction

During the ancient period the villages enjoyed autonomy and were governed by the Panchayats which were Self-Government units. Each village had its own council or *Sabha* where the village elders assembled to deliberate over questions of public importance. The decision of five elderly persons of a village used to carry with it, as much sanctity and sanction as is attached in modern times by legal fiction to the awards of a court of justice. These panchayats enjoyed full administrative and judicial powers.

Gradully the village communities which flourished during the ancient period suffered a set back under the Muslim rule and then under the Maratha rule and, finally, disappeared under the British. The new policy of administrative centralisation and the tendency towards replacing the Indian political institutions by the new western ones dealt a fatal blow to the village Self-Government. Thus by the middle of nineteenth century the Panchayats in their old form had disappeared. The form adopted during the British rule was an admixture of the British and continental patterns.

History of local Self Govt. in the District

Local Self Government in the legally constituted form in which it now prevails in Damoh District is essentially a product of the British rule. In 1867, a municipality was constituted at Damoh. The District Council and two local boards were constituted under the provisions of Local Self-Government Act of 1883, while in 1923 first steps were taken for establishing village panchayats.

Lord Mayo's Resolution of 1870 emphasised the principle of developing local bodies as training agencies of Self-Government. Accordingly the first Municipal Act in the Central Provinces was passed in 1873 (II of 1873) and remained in force till 1883, when the Central Provinces Local Self-Government Act I of that year was introduced. As per provisions of the Act of 1873 a municipality was reconstituted at Damoh. The area was divided into wards and the number of members to be elected was fixed.

Lord Ripon's Resolution of Local Self-Government of 19th May, 1882 marks the beginning of a new chapter in the history of local self-government.

Damoh District Council and local Boards of Damoh and Hatta

Following this resolution the Central Provinces Local Self-Government Act I of 1883 and Central Provinces Municipal Act XVIII of 1889 were passed providing wider extension of municipal administration. The Damoh District Council was constituted as per provisions of the Act of 1883 alongwith two Local Boards at Damoh and Hatta, having jurisdiction over respective tahsil areas. Both the District Council and Local Boards had elected, nominated and *ex-officio* members.

Municipalities Act of 1903

Lord Elgin's Government laid down further conditions of progress in local self-government in its Resolutions of 1896 and 1897. This led to the passage of Municipalities Act of 1903 which was more specific in regard to the powers of Municipal Committees.

Local Self-Govt. Act of 1920 and Subsequent Acts

In 1907-09 the Royal Commission of Decentralisation recommended that the village should be the basic unit of local democracy, with an elective panchayat for every village. In 1918 the Government of India laid down a broad pattern upon which the Provincial Government was to move in order to achieve complete local self-government. The Montford Report suggested certain reforms for further democratisation of municipal bodies. Consequently, the Government of India Act of 1919 transferred the subject of Self Government to the control of popular ministers. The principles enunciated in these recommendations and the resolutions accepted by the Government of Central Provinces and Berar were embodied in Local Self-Government Act of 1920, Municipalities Act of 1922 and the Panchayat Act of 1920. The former was implemented in 1922 and the latter in July 1923.

Central Provinces and Berar Municipal Act 1939

In 1927 the Central Provinces and Berar Municipalities Act (First Amendment Act IV of 1927) was passed which prescribed that the number of nominated members should not exceed that of selected members. During the era of Provincial autonomy, the year 1939 witnessed the enactment and enforcement of the Central Provinces and Berar Municipalities (Second Amendment) Act 1939. It provided for election of the President by adult franchise. The third Amendment Act provided for adult franchise while the fourth abolished the system of nomination.

After the General Elections of 1946, popular ministries were again constituted in the Provinces, including the Central Provinces and Berar. Efforts were, therefore, again initiated to give new dimensions to the concept of local self government.

The Central Provinces and Berar Panchayat Act of 1946 was passed, which renovated the old system. Later on a comprehensive amending Act,

Central Provinces and Berar Municipal Act, 1947

the Central Provinces and Berar Municipalities (Amendment) Act, 1947 was passed. It was enacted to implement some of the recommendations of the Local Self-Government Enquiry Committee 1935. Under the Act, the president was provided with wider powers and responsibilities. In the beginning the President of the Municipal Committee was elected by elected members of the Committee. This continued till 1940 from which year the President began to be elected by the general voters on adult franchise basis. This system was, however, again reformed in 1957 and since then the President and the two vice-Presidents are elected by the Municipal Councillors.

Janapada Act 1948

In 1948 the Janapada Act was passed. According to it the District Council and Local Boards were replaced by Janapada Sabhas. To incorporate the recommendations of Urban Local Self-Government Committee the Madhya Pradesh Municipalities Act of 1961 was passed. This Act aimed at lowering the franchise and increasing the elected element in local bodies to the extent of making them the unquestioned immediate arbiter of policy in local affairs and passing executive direction into non-official hands.

Madhya Pradesh Municipalities Act of 1961

Some of the main changes introduced by the new Municipalities Act were:

1. Municipalities, which had hitherto been grouped on income basis into six categories, were to be grouped into four categories of Class I, II, III & IV on population basis.

2. Among the selected councillors one seat has been reserved for a woman to be selected by the elected members from the whole body of electors.

3. The term of the committee has been extended from three years to four years.

4. Every Municipal Committee has been empowered to constitute out of its own body such executive sub-committees as finance, public works, public health and education.

5. After every election each Municipality has to elect its President from amongst the electors and two Vice-Presidents from amongst the councillors for a term of two years.

Municipalities

Damoh Municipality

The Damoh Municipal Committee has been classified into a Class II committee. As already stated earlier a municipality at Damoh town was constituted in 1867,[1] under the provisions of Punjab Municipal Committees Act XV of 1867.[2] Subsequently changes were made in the constitution of the Municipality as per provisions of the Central Provinces Municipal Acts of 1873, 1889, 1903 and 1922 at different stages. In the beginning the Municipal area included parts of Damoh and Hirdepur village. Of the total area of 1,020 hectares, a little over 465 hectares was *Nazul* or Government property.[3]

Later, the limits of Municipality were fixed.[4] In 1901 the population within the municipal limits was 13,355. It increased to 17,092 in 1911, but decreased to 15,296 in 1921.

Damoh Municipality was composed of three nominated members and seven elected members.[5] The provision for selected members was introduced only in 1923, after the implementation of the Act of 1922. In the beginning principal sources of income were market dues, house tax, conservancy cess and fees on markets and slaughter houses. The composition of Damoh Municipality underwent changes from time to time as tabulated below[6]:—

Composition of Damoh Municipality

Table No. XIV-1

Composition of Damoh Municipality

Year	Population	No. of Members				
		Ex-Officio	Elected	Nominated	Selected	Total
1921	15,296		11	5	—	16
1931	20,728	1	13	3	3	20
1941	26,795	—	16	—	4	20
1951	36,279	—	24	—	6	30
1961	46,656	—	24	—	6	30
1971	59,993	—	26	—	6	32

1. Notification No. 337 dt. 17-5-1867.
2. Memorandum on the Development of Local Self Government Bodies in the Central Provinces and Berar, 1928-29, Part I, p. 1.
3. *Damoh District Gazetteer*, p. 193.
4. Notification No. 1220, dt. 15-11-1910.
5. *Damoh District Gazetteer*, p. 177.
6. ibid, also Chief Municipal Officer.

The above changes were made according to the various Acts and their amendments in the province. The President of the Municipal Committee used to be elected by the elected members and he, in turn, used to nominate two Vice-Presidents. But from 1940 onwards the President began to be elected directly through general adult franchise. This system was again changed in 1957 and since then the President and two Vice-Presidents are elected jointly by the elected and selected members. From 1960, four seats were reserved for the Harijans.

Election of President

Damoh Municipal Committee had 24 elected and 6 selected members in addition to one President and two Vice-Presidents.

Hatta Municipality

As already stated earlier, the Hatta Notified Area Committee was upgraded into a Municipality in 1954 under the Municipalities Act of 1922. In 1957 the population of Hatta town was 6,667 which increased to 9,117 in 1961. The Municipality has an area of 5.91 sq. kilometres which is divided into nine wards. The provisional 1971 population is 12,103.

When the municipality was first constituted ten members were nominated by the Government. The first election to the Municipality was held in 1955. The number of elected and selected members was fixed as 9 and 2 respectively.[1] During 1955, nine members and the President were elected directly by the people on adult franchise basis, two were selected by the members and two Vice-Presidents were nominated by the President. According to the provisions of the Municipal Act of 1961 the Municipality has been classified as Class IV Committee. In the elections of 1961, nine members were elected by the people and two members were selected by the members while the President and two Vice-Presidents were elected by the Committee. The number of *ex-officio*, elected and selected members was 1,10 and 2 respectively making a total of 13 in 1969-70.

Composition

In 1965-66, the committee was managing four primary schools. There was no provision for piped water supply and underground drainage system in Hatta till 1968-69. The traditional sources of water like wells and river were utilized while sewage is still disposed of by tractor, trolley, head-load and hand carts to the compost ground.

Activities

The main sources of revenue of the municipalities are octroi tax, conservancy tax and water tax. Important items of expenditure are Public Health and convenience, public safety, public works and others.

Financial Resources

1. Notification No. 3531-1527-M-XIII, dtd. 28th June, 1954.

The Municipalities of the District registered a striking rise in total receipts and expenditure as is evident from the following table:—

Table No. XIV-2

Receipts and Expenditure of Municipalities

Year	Damoh Municipality		Hatta Municipality	
	Receipts (in Rs.)	Expenditure (in Rs.)	Receipts (in Rs.)	Expenditure (in Rs.)
1	2	3	4	5
1940-41	1,21,786	1,28,877		
1947-48	2,97,167	2,90,964	8,142	3,988
1950-51	7,73,276	8,15,791	16,884	12,128
1955-56	7,23,593	7,40 277	19,325	18,563
1960-61	9,42,968	9,14,869	48,583	48,236
1961-62	11,08,914	10,11,184	75,935	55,243
1962-63	12,58.715	10,87,562	92,0)8	86,616
1963-64	10,50,533	10,39,928	76,368	69,699
1964-65	9,53,083	9,71,666	58,279	53,536
1965-66	10,79,397	10,94,986	56,755	55,263
1966-67	11,14,994	11,63,427	61,319	54,974
1967-68	21,61,563	23,19,356	70,976	76,764
1968-69	16,47,279	18,61,001	57,609	59,707
1969-70	17,64,342	17,41,944	63,471	56,810

Source:—Chief Municipal Officers, Damoh and Hatta.

Functions and Duties

The Municipalities are charged with the various obligatory and discretionary functions within the Municipal area as provided under the Act of 1961. Briefly and generally they are construction and maintenance of roads, bridges and culverts, watering and street lighting, water supply, drainage, maintenance of public health services, slaughter houses, sanitary convenience, prevention of fire, and registration of births and deaths. Besides, there are several discretionary functions which the municipalities are expected to perform.

The Government may entrust any other function to the Municipalities. For the performance of various functions, there are sub-committees dealing with education, public works, public health, water supply and the like.

The Central Provinces and Berar Education Act of 1920 provided for the introduction of compulsory education for boys and girls of the group of 5 to

Education

11 years by the Municipalities. Damoh Municipality had 3 primary schools in 1910-11 which increased to 19 primary, 4 middle and 1 higher secondary school in 1960-61. In the subsequent years, i.e., till 1970, one primary school and two Bal Mandirs were added to this list. Hatta Municipality was managing four Primary Schools in 1959-60, which increased to five primary schools and two Middle Schools in 1965-66. From 1966-67 onwards, only 2 primary schools and a Bal Mandir were reported to be run by the committee.

The expenditure on public health, public works and education of Damoh and Hatta Municipalities for a few selected years from 1947-48 is given below.

Table No. XIV-3

Municipal Expenditure Under Various Heads

Year	Damoh Municipality			Hatta Municipality		
	Public Health	Public Works	Education	Public Health	Public Works	Education
1947-48	88,746	7,680	81,636	2,265	362	N.A.
1950-51	1,28,380	1,40,543	1,25,182	5,734	1,365	N.A.
1955-56	1,23,455	33,847	1,70,383	7,031	1,070	N.A.
1960-61	1,42,431	29,124	3,20,509	7,010	6,841	20,841
1961-62	1,79,016	1,02,626	3,45,707	4,545	6,538	N.A.
1962-63	1,88,233	49,400	3,76,394	26,326	996	N.A.
1963-64	2,17,358	38,990	2,60,578	20,718	433	26,337
1964-65	2,52,991	59,412	1,15,839	23,457	1,813	5,736
1965-66	2,51,335	62,966	1,26,767	20,259	1,499	3,925
1966-67	2,47,062	52,730	1,52,837	26,967	267	4,229
1967-68	3,97,149	1,70,385	1,59,427	23,407	15.618	6,375
1968-69	4,12,371	2,23,029	1,63,415	25,759	879	7,856
1969-70	58,598	1,29,895	1,67,065	31,196	1.745	6,386

Source.—Chief Municipal Officers, Damoh and Hatta.

At present in both the Municipal towns the streets are lighted with electricity. In Damoh Town electricity was introduced on 26th January, 1951 with 200 street lights in the Municipal area which increased to 635 in 1965-66. Hatta town got the supply of electricity on 28th August, 1960. The following table would give an idea of the number of street lights and the expenditure incurred thereon by the two municipalities of the District.

Street Lighting

Table No. XIV—4

Number of and Expenditure on Street Lights

Year	Damoh Municipality		Hatta Municipality	
	Number of street lights	Expenditure (in Rs.)	Number of street lights	Expenditure (in Rs.)
1947-48	—	3,691	15	244
1950-51	200	23,163	32	879
1961-62	599	40,888	150	5,807
1962-63	610	38,188	173	8,006
1963-64	624	54,715	178	9,128
1964-65	628	42,418	183	7,963
1965-66	635	47,279	N.A.	N.A.
1966-67	835	37,258	172	7,977
1967-68	919	38,026	222	10,144
1968-69	978	70,851	222	7,539
1969-70	N.A.	44,651	223	7,316

In Damoh town, the main achievements in Public Works activities are the completion of a stadium at a cost of Rs. 1.5 lakhs and the construction of a swimming pool, the work of which is in progress. A mission colony, at a cost of Rs. 6.5 lakhs has also been completed. The municipality has also constructed buildings for Physics and Chemistry laboratories of the Municipal Higher Secondary School and donated a sum of Rs. lakh for Polytechnic to be opened in the town.

Public Works

In Hatta, no special achievement worth mentioning in this field has been reported except the construction of new roads and repairs of old ones. This is obvious from the expenditure pattern, which shows that a sum of Rs. 15,618 was the highest amount spent on construction activity in two decades after Independence.

Both the municipalities spend their largest amount under this head; the expenditure on public health has risen particularly after 1960-61 because of increase in expenditure on water supply and drainage scheme. An Ayurvedic dispensary is maintained by Damoh Municipality at an expenditure of Rs. 2,000 annually.

Public Health

The Municipal Committee, Damoh, has been supplying drinking water to the town from Rajnagar Pumping Station. Known as Rajnagar Water Works, it was constructed in 1916-19 at a cost of Rs. 2,75,000. Four and half lakh gallons (2.05 million litres) of water is supplied per day. This supply was originally intended for a population of 20,000. Naturally, therefore, it was found very inadequate.

Water Supply Schemes

The State Government had approved a scheme costing about Rs. 73 lakhs to enable increased water supply. This scheme was initiated in 1962 and over one third of the scheme was completed in the middle of 1970. In 1969-70, a sum of Rs. 63,741 was received as income from water rate, whereas a sum of Rs. 4,73,306 has been reported to be on the expenditure side which included Rs. 4,00,000 on new lines. Till the end of 1971-72, a sum of Rs. 40,00,000, has been spent and the scheme is being implemented by the Public Health Engineering Department. The Government has advanced 30% grant and 70% loan to the Municipal Committee. Raw Water from this scheme is being supplied to some parts of the town.

In Hatta town water was mainly derived from wells and tanks. The River Sonar flows in the Municipal limits and water was derived from there also. This position remained till the end of 1967-68. In 1968-69 a loan of Rs. 50,000 was advanced by the State Government to the Hatta Municipality to have its own Water Supply Scheme. A temporary water-supply scheme was started in 1970. The permanent scheme is nearing completion.

The following table shows the income from and expenditure on water supply of Damoh Municipality.

Table No. XIV—5

Income from and Expenditure on Water-Supply of Damoh Municipality

Year	Income (Rs.)	Expenditure (in Rs.)
1	2	3
1940-41	10,321	12,064
1947-48	17,899	32,326
1950-51	34,486	17,388
1955-56	24,874	47,620
1960-61	41,578	82,066
1961-62	45,118	71,359
1962-63	60,915	73,174
1963-64	51,467	70,510
1964-65	50,050	84,447
1965-66	52,090	85,220
1966-67	48,810	1,11,250
1967-68	70,663	1,10,037
1968-69	64,683	99,094
1969-70	63,741	4,73,306

Source.—Chief Municipal Officer, Damoh.

Town Planning

The general trend in the country is towards urbanisation and most of the towns and cities have developed without any rational layout, sufficient roads, open air spaces, recreation facilities and adequate sanitary arrangements.

At present in Damoh District, Municipalities are the agencies under which various housing schemes are being implemented.

Master Plan of Damoh Town

The Municipal town of Damoh has at present an area of 11.7 km. Out of this, only one-sixth has been actually built up, leaving enough scope for future development on planned lines. While framing proposals for the Master Plan, the direction of the town has been maintained and care has been taken to see that the anticipated population is accommodated in convenient position and provided with requisite amenities. The town is to be divided into three proposed Zones: (1) Industrial Zone (2) Administrative Zone and (3) Residential Zone. The actual implementation of the Plan will be taken up in two stages: (1) schemes for immediate execution (2) schemes for implementation at later dates when their necessity is felt.

The schemes for immediate implementation include reservation of land for (1) accommodating administrative offices, (2) College and hostel buildings (3) parks (4) hospital (5) industrial area. The second scheme includes development of local Christian mission land area, Hirdepur area, Imlahi area, and Dhuba tank area. The Third Scheme is regarding the shifting of charcoal depot from grain market to an isolated place between Hatta Road and railway line. The important items of the long term scheme to be taken up later on are:—

(1) Construction of Ring roads—two roads are proposed to be constructed, an outer ring road and the inner ring road.

(2) Widening of existing roads.

(3) Creation of an industrial area.

Under this head the sites are to be developed for large scale industries, and for small scale industries.

Shopping Centre, Damoh

At present two important schemes are under execution, namely, shopping centre and sweepers' tenements. Of this, the Shopping Centre project is under the Urban Land Development Scheme. The scheme aims at development of an area of 0.09 acres for a shopping centre at an estimated cost of Rs. 1.50 lakhs. An amount of Rs. 1.35 lakhs has so far been spent over it, The scheme is nearing completion.

This project was under execution under the Sweepers' Housing Scheme. The target of the project was to construct 30 tenements at an estimated cost of Rs. 1,05,000. An amount of Rs. 26,250 was spent during the Third Plan. All the 30 quarters have been completed and 50 others are under construction with the help of Social Welfare Department.

Sweepers' Tenements

District Council and Local Boards

Before the Act of 1883, there existed a number of Committees in each district, namely, District Committee, School Committee, Dispensary Committee, etc., to look after various local affairs. An important step towards the introduction of local self government in the District was taken in 1883, when, under the Central Provinces and Berar Local Self Government Act, 1883, a District Council at Damoh and Local Boards at Damoh and Hatta were established. According to the provision of the Act the area and jurisdiction under the Local Boards of Damoh and Hatta coincided with the area of the respective tahsils, while that of the District Council of Damoh extended over the whole of Damoh revenue district.

In the Central Provinces it was recognised from the very outset that the village was to be the unit of all administration. The Act, therefore, provided for the aggregation of village in circles and circles into groups. From these circles and groups were excluded such areas as were included in the limits of a military cantonment or a town having a municipality. Hence each group of circles had a Local Board and for each District a District Council was established.

Area of Operation

District Council Damoh

Damoh District Council was composed of 5 nominated and 10 elected members. Similarly, Damoh Local Board consisted of 3 nominated and 14 elected members, while Hatta Local Board had 3 nominated and 11 elected members.[1] The Tahsildar was the President of the Local Board. The management of schools, dispensaries, pounds and of minor roads with ferries was entrusted to the District Council. The Local Boards had no independent income, but they performed inspection duty and supervised minor improvements. In other words, Local Boards were working as the agents of the District Council. In 1910 some of the duties were transferred from the District Council to Local Boards.

Composition of District Council, Damoh

The functions of District Council were shared by the Chairman and the Secretary in whose hands were the executive powers. There were many Com-

1. *Damoh District Gazetteer*, p. 176.

mittees like the school committee, the public works committee, etc. The Tahsildar in his role as the agent of the Deputy Commissioner and the Chairman of the Local Board succeeded in concentrating most of the executive authority in his hands.

Functions and Constitution

The constitution of Damoh and Hatta Local Boards, and Damoh District Council in 1911-12 was as follows[1]:—

Table No. XIV—6

Constitution of District Council and Local Boards in 1911-12

Name	Area in sq. km.	Population	Number of members				
			Nominated	Elected	Total	Official	Non-Official
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
Damoh Local Board	4.501	1,93,876	3	15	18	2	16
Hatta Local Board	2,608	1,22,173	3	12	15	1	4
Damoh Distric Council	7.223	3,16,049	6	12	18	2	16

Changes in Constitution

The Constitution of these bodies undrwent changes within a few years. In 1915-16 elected official Chairman was retained in Damoh and Hatta Local Boards while in case of Damoh District Council the Chairman was a non-official. The question of replacing the official secretary of the District Council in Damoh and official Chairmen of Local Boards of the District by non-officials was under consideration in 1920-21. To afford these local bodies greater freedom from official control and to provide greater scope of activities, the Central Provinces and Berar Local Self Government Act was passed in 1920 which finally came into force from 1st May, 1922. The general elections, according to the Act for the Local Boards and the District Council were held for the first time in 1923-24. The new Act had enhanced financial powers, liberalised franchise, increased the proportion of elected members, eliminated communal and official members and relaxed official control, atleast in theory.

Reconstitution in 1924-25

Under the Act IV of 1920, Damoh District Council, along with the two Local Boards at Damoh and Hatta were reconstituted. The District was divided into two groups and for each group a local board was constituted. The Damoh and Hatta Local Boards were divided into 11 and 9 circles, respectively. At the district level, a District Council was established. The composition of

1. Resolution reviewing the Reports on the working of District Councils and Local Boards in the Central Provinces and Berar, 1911-12, pp. 4-5.

the newly reconstituted bodies in the District in 1924-25 was as follows:[1]

Table No. XIV—7

Reconstituted District Council and Local Boards 1924-25

Name	Area in sq. km.	Population	Number of members				
			Ex-officio	Nominated	Elected	Selected	Total
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
Damoh Local Board	4,654	1,79,361	—	3	15	—	18
Hatta Local Board	2,639	1,07,765	1	2	12	—	15
Damoh District Council	7,293	2,87,126	2	3	12	3	20

Damoh District merged in Sagar

As an economy measure, consequent upon the great economic depression of the 'thirties, Damoh District was combined with Sagar district with effect from the 1st of October 1931. In the same year the Central Provinces and Berar Local Self Government (Amendment) Act was passed, but the merged district was allowed to retain its District Council.[2]

Application of the Act of 1939

The Central Provinces and Berar Act (XXXII) of 1939, however, abolished the nominated element in the Local Boards and made them completely elected bodies. In order to give representation to certain special classes and interests a seat each was reserved for a Muslim, a Harijan and a woman. But if the members failed to select the required persons, Government made necessary appointments. This Act also introduced the principle of adult franchise for the election.

Election to the District Council

The elections to the District Council were indirect, four-fifths of the prescribed number being elected by single transferable vote by the Local Boards under its control, from amongst their own members; and the remaining one-fifth selected by single transferable vote by the elected members. The inclusion of a Muslim, a Harijan and a woman was also provided for the District Council. The number of members in the Damoh District Council was fixed as follows:

Table No. XIV—8

Composition of District Council 1939

Name of Local Board	Elected	Number of members	
		selected	Total
1	2	3	4
Damoh	9 } 16	4	20
Hatta	7 }		

1. Resolution Reviewing the Reports on the Working of District Councils and Local Boards in Central Provinces and Berar, 1924-25, pp. 4-5 and 12-13.
2. Rural Local Self-Government in Madhya Pradesh, p. 289.

Each Local Board and District Council elected, from among its own membership or other persons residing in the group or District Council area, respectively, a Chairman and a Vice-Chairman. The Chairman and the Vice-Chairman held office for a period of three years.

Chairman and Vice-Chairman

The District Council and Local Boards derived their functions and powers from the Provincial legislature. The Acts giving powers to the Councils were of two kinds, general and adoptive. The functions of a District Council or a Local Board comprised the construction, repair and maintenance of means of communication, roadsbuilding and other Government works; the establishment, management, maintenance and inspection of schools, hospitals, dispensaries, slaughter houses, markets, rest houses, and *sarais*; construction and repair of public wells, tanks and water works; establishment and management of pounds; and other local works or measures likely to promote health, comfort or convenience of the public.

Functions and Powers

The powers and duties of the Local Boards, within their areas, were the same as those of the District Council with the exception that all original civil works and repairs costing more than Rs. 2,500 each required prior sanction of the District Council. The Act authorised the District Council to delegate its powers to the Local Boards within its area.

The working of the Local Self Government in Central Provinces and Berar under the Act of 1883 and 1885 unmistakably showed that the financial resources of the District Council and Local Boards were meagre, scanty and inelastic. Previously when the District Council had no power of taxation, it was entitled to certain prescribed cess and rates. Under the Act 1920 the local bodies began to impose and realise taxes. The Grant-in-Aid to Local Bodies Act, 1929 provided for the payment of a grant to local bodies approximately equal to the sums realised by them in the shape of certain fees and fines. In 1937 a scheme was prepared to make the District Council a unit of administration for the purpose of decentralisation. But owing to the resignation of the popular Ministry the scheme could not be implemented. In 1948, a scheme in a modified form was, however, embodied in Central Provinces Local Self-Government Act (No. XXXVIII) of 1948. According to it District Council and Local Boards were abolished and instead Janapada Sabhas were established at tahsil level in Damoh District.

Financial Resources

Janapada Sabhas

In 1948, the Janapada Sabha Scheme was introduced in the State with the avowed object of effecting decentralisation of powers and functions and the

Janapada Act

promotion of real Local Self Government on a wider basis. The Local Self-Government Act, 1948 which is popularly known as Janapada Act, was enacted. According to the Act Janapada Sabhas were established at tahsil level at Damoh and Hatta after abolishing District Council and Local Boards. These two Janapada Sabhas came into existence from 15th August, 1948. This Act, as amended from time to time, is still in force in the District.

Composition of Janapada Sabhas

In the beginning the members of the Janapada Sabhas were nominated by the Government as there was not sufficient time for election. The number of nominated members of Damoh and Hatta Sabha representing rural and urban areas was 25 and 24, respectively, including the Chairman and Vice-Chairman. These nominated bodies continued to function till 31st March 1954, when the elections were held. The composition of Janapada Sabhas of Damoh and Hatta was as follows[1]:—

Table No XIV—9

Composition of Janapada Sabhas of Damoh and Hatta

Name	Number of members		
	Urban	Rural	Total
1. Damoh Janapada	3	19	22
2. Hatta Janapada	1	19	20

A Janapada area is divided into urban and rural circles. The urban areas consist of municipal and notified areas. The number of rural circles fixed in 1951 was 19 each for Damoh and Hatta Janapada Sabhas.

Mode of election, selection, etc.

The number of councillors from urban areas for Damoh and Hatta Janapada Sabhas, respectively,[2] was three from Damoh Municipal Council and one from Hatta Municipal Council. The members of the Sabha are elected as well as selected. Elected members consist of those representing rural circles and others representing urban circles. From rural circles members are elected directly from the constituencies while in urban circles they are elected by the elected members of the municipal bodies. In the Act there is a provision to select one Harijan and one Scheduled Tribe member, if such members are not amongst the elected ones. The life of the Sabha is for five years from the date of its first meeting and the term of office of every Councillor co-terminates with it. The Chairman and the Deputy Chairman who are elected by the Councillors from amongst themselves or from outside, hold office for the life time of the Sabha. The following table gives the size, population and composition of members of Janapada Sabhas of the District during the 'fifties and early 'sixties.

1. The Madhya Pradesh Janapada Manual, Part I, 1955, p. 117.
2. Ibid. p. 120.

Table No. XIV—10

Size, Population and Composition of Janapada Sabhas

Janapada Sabha	Area in sq. km.	Population (1961)	Number of members		
			Elected	Selected	Total
Damoh	4,644	2,91,028	19	3	22
Hatta	2,647	1,47,315	19	1	20

Source:—The Chief Executive Officers, Janapada Sabhas.

Standing Committees

In pursuance of the Act of 1948, every Sabha forms Standing Committees on finance, Public works, Public Health, Education, Agriculture, and Development. Out of these, the Development Committee was, however, abolished in accordance with the recommendations of the Janapada Enquiry Committee, 1952, and instead of it an *Administrative Committee comprising eleven or nearly equal to* one-third of the total number of councillors, whichever was greater, was constituted in each Sabha. The Chairman and the Deputy Chairman of the Janapada Sabha were to be the Chairman and Vice-Chairman of the Administrative Committee. The Administrative Committee deals with the co-ordination of the other Standing Committees, and looks to the implementation of their decisions and appointment of Janapada staff.

Chief Executive Officer

The Chief Executive officer is the *ex-officio* Secretary of every Standing Committee. The Sub-Divisional Officers of Damoh and Hatta act as the Chief Executive Officers of these Janapada Sabhas, while Tahsildars function as Deputy Chief Executive Officers.

Latest Composition of Janapada Sabhas

The latest composition of Damoh Janapada Sabha as reported in November 1970 was that, there were 10 urban circles instead of the 3 mentioned earlier. There was no change in the number of rural circles and it remained 19. Thus the total number which was 22 initially is raised to 29. For each circle there is a member and the 29 members include 22 elected and 7 selected.

Similarly, the latest composition of Hatta Janapada Sabha as reported in August 1970 was that, there were 8 urban and 16 rural circles, in all 24, and out of 24 members at the rate of one each for a circle, the number of elected members was 20 and that of selected 4.

Functions

The Janapada Sabhas have been vested with larger authority and wider powers than the former District Councils. These are mainly of three categories-obligatory, discretionary and entrusted. Obligatory duties comprise establishment, management and maintenance of rural schools, hospitals, dispensaries markets, *serais*, transferred buildings and roads, cattle-pounds, vaccination, maintenance of public health

centres, village uplift, control of epidemics, registration of births and deaths, and provision and control of relief work. Discretionary functions were originally ten, but subsequently increased to seventeen. There are some entrusted functions for which the Sabha acts as an agent of the State Government and works strictly according to policy and instructions laid down for it.

Financial Resources

Under the Act of 1948 the sources of income of Janapada Sabhas are : proceeds of taxes, fees, tolls cesses and rates imposed under the Act; all such rents and profits from property in the Janapada area; and such percentage of land revenue as the Government may fix. The sources of income of Janapada Sabhas have continued to be more or less the same as those of the former District Councils except that the scope and the rate of compulsory cess have been enlarged. Recently the Government has fixed that five per cent of land revenue is to be paid to the Sabha. The following table gives the income and expenditure figures of Janapada Sabhas of Damoh District for a few years.

Table No. XIV—11

Income and Expenditure of Janapada Sabhas

	Damoh Janapada Sabha		Hatta Janapada Sabha	
	Receipt (in Rs.)	Expenditure (in Rs.)	Receipt (in Rs.)	Expenditure (in Rs.)
1	2	3	4	5
1950-51	3,17,953	1,53,852	68,743	1,51,890
1955-56	6,30,974	4,03,004	3,19,237	3,65,104
1961-62	6,20,389	7,37,949	4,10,943	4,17,151
1962-63	7,41,602	7,21,877	6,35,382	4,29,670
1963-64	4,97,595	5,66,264	4,14,147	6,78,019
1964-65	3,20,324	3,34,203	3,33,201	2,66,117
1965-66	--	—	3,07,615	2,61,164
1966-67	4,35,756	4,21,529	3,00,404	3,77,184
1967-68	3,94,672	4,98,727	3,26,112	3,91,788
1968-69	4,91,989	4,91,718	2,88,183	2,93,372
1969-70	5,37,368	4,61,923	2,83,313	2,24,436

Source.—Sub-Divisional Officers, Janapada Sabhas, Damoh and Hatta.

There has been a gap between the income and expenditure of Janapada Sabha and the State Government has been forced to give loans to some of the Sabhas to enable them to get along with their commitments. In some cases temporary loans have also been given to meet the difficulties. The grant-in-aid is given for a variety of reasons but mainly to assist the Janapada Sabha in the

maintenance of various services. Besides the total income from grants for Damoh and Hatta Janapada Sabhas, Municipalities may also be required to make contributions to the Janapada funds.

On the recommendations of the Janapada Enquiry Committee Government decided to abolish additional cess and raise the rate of compulsory cess. In respect of educational grant it was decided that 75 per cent of the approved expenditure on Primary education should be met by Government. In backward areas this percentage would be upto 90 per cent. The Government also decided that the Janapada Sabha would be given a share of land revenue at 5 per cent of the annual demand in each year. All the sums received by the Sabha constitute the Janapada Fund which is vested in the Sabha and is placed to its credit.

Expenditure

The main expenditure of Janapada Sabhas is on Public Health, Public Works and Education. The expenditure of Janapada Sabha under these items is given in the table below.

Table No. XIV—12

Annual Expenditure of Janapada Sabhas

Year	Damoh Janaapada Sabha		
	Public Health	Public Works	Education
1	2	3	4
1950-51	12,768	27,519	1,21,827
1955-56	10,675	84,682	1,79,872
1960-61	16,390	1,01,835	4,28,750
1961-62	16,708	1,03,033	4,157
1962-63	16,160	37,604	13,845
1963-64	17,367	31,622	11,440
1964-65	24,528	42,333	24,894
1965-66	29,524	30,973	1,29,166
1966-67	24,665	39,268	1,85,769
1967-68	36,896	48,005	2,27,470
1968-69	38,029	57,590	2,47,152
1969-70	27,727	22,532	2,62,340
			Hatta Janapada Sabha
1950-51	7,329	13,968	74,700
1955-56	8,137	98,130	1,49,277
1960-61	11,784	61,288	2,22,829
1961-62	10 961	38,282	2,23,308
1962-63	9,094	27,616	2,27,337
1963-64	10,774	40,991	4,22,053
1964-65	11,180	22,290	61,391
1965-66	12,781	40,522	21,755
1966-67	20,607	1,51,275	18,304
1967-68	18,889	86,347	16,743
1968-69	21,584	62,777	48,150
1969-70	22,619	27,378	23,742

Source.—Sub-Divisional Officers, Janapada Sabhas, Damoh and Hatta.

Panchayats

Following the transfer of the Department of Local Self Government under the charge of a responsible provincial minister under the Government of India Act of 1919, two Acts, namely, the Central Provinces and Berar Village Sanitation and Public Management Act of 1920 and the Central Provinces and Berar Village Panchayat Act of 1920 were passed simultaneously. Under these Acts provision was made to create sanitation panchayats in the areas notified by the Government, and regular village panchayats were to be established in ordinary rural areas. It was also decided upon that as far as possible the existing sanitation panchayats should be converted into village panchayats.

History

Under the Central Provinces Village Panchayat Act No. V of 1920, a Panchayat was established for a circle comprising a village or group of contiguous villages. The village Panchayat was established by the Deputy Commissioner after an application was made by not less than twenty adult male residents of a village or a group of villages. In 1923, two Village Panchayats were established at Hindoria and Jabera villages of Damoh Tahsil. One Panchayat at Sitanagar was established in 1926. The number of Village Panchayats further increased to 5 in 1927, 7 in 1928, 8 in 1929 and to 12 in 1930. Out of these 12 village panchayats, 11 were constituted in Damoh Tahsil and one in Hatta Tahsil.

Establishment of Village Panchayats in the District

Almost all the panchayats of the District which undertook administrative duties were group panchayats exercising authority over five or ten villages. The inevitable result of this group system was that the elected members were swamped by the *ex-officio Mukaddams*. The constitution of a sanitation Panchayat required the sanction of Local Government upon an application made by not less than ten residents, alongwith the working *Mukaddam* of the village concerned.[1] Patharia Panchayat of Damoh tahsil was converted into a Village Panchayat in 1928-29.[2] The main sources of income of Village Panchayats were taxes, fees and fines and grant received from Government, Local authorities or private persons.

Group Panchayats

The progress of Village Panchayats was slow and the results achieved by them were insignificant. This led to the appointment of an Enquiry Committee in 1935 in the Central Provinces. The Committee recommended that Panchayats should be endowed with civil and criminal powers. The recommendations of this Committee were embodied in the Central Provinces and Berar Panchayat Act of 1946, which came into force in 1947. The Panchayat Act of 1946, as amended from time to time continued to govern the Panchayats of this District till the implementation of Panchayat Act (VII of 1962).

Recommendations of Enquiry Committee

1. Memorandum on the Development of Local Self-Government Bodies in the Central Provinces and Berar, 1928-29, p. 58.
2. Report on the Working of the Village Panchayats in the Central Provinces and Berar, 1927-28, and 1928-29, p. 23.

According to the provision of the Act of 1946, the formation of panchayats was split up into three classes,[1] first for every village with a population of 1,000 or above, second for village with a population of not less than 500 and third for villages with a population below 500. One Panchayat was established for every village and *Panchas* were elected on the basis of adult suffrage. Accordingly 111 Gram Panchayats and 26 Nyaya Panchayats were established in Damoh District in 1948-49. The following table shows the progress in this sphere since 1948-49,

Area of operation of Panchayats

Table No. XIV—13

Number of Gram Panchayats and Nyaya Panchayats

Year	Damoh Janapada Sabha		Hatta Janapada Sabha		Total	
	Number of Gram Panchayats	Number of Nyaya Panchayats	Number of Gram Panchayats	Number of Nyaya Panchayats	Number of Gram Panchayats	Number of Nyaya Panchayats
1	2	3	4	5	6	7
1948-49	79	16	32	10	111	26
1956-57	118	16	63	10	181	26
1957-58	118	16	63	10	181	26
1958-59	118	16	63	10	181	26
1959-60	118	16	139	10	257	26
1960-61	246	16	139	10	385	26
1961-62	246	16	139	10	385	26
1962-63	246	16	139	10	385	26
1963-64	246	16	139	10	385	26
1964-65	130	16	74	10	204	26
1965-66	130	16	74	10	204	26
1966-67	130	16	74	10	204	26
1967-68	130	16	74	10	204	26
1968-69	130	16	74	10	204	26
1969-70	131	16	74	10	205	26

Source.—District Panchayat and Welfare Officer, Damoh.

The functions entrusted to the Village Panchayats under the Act of 1946 are multifarious. They cover the entire field of civic administration and social and economic development of the villages. The long list of their duties, as enumerated in the Act, has been described under two heads, optional and discretionary. The first category included conservancy, sanitation, medical relief, vaccination and first aid, supply of water, registration of births, deaths and marriages, and construction as well as maintenance of village roads. Discretionary functions assigned to the Panchayat may be treated as compulsory in certain cases if the Government so desires.

Functions

1. Report of the Rural Local Self Government Committee, 1957, p. 12.

Financial Resources of these panchayats may be classified as:—

(a) Self-earned or independent income like compulsory and optional taxes, fees rates, etc., and receipt from panchayat property.

(b) Government grant, both regular and ad hoc.

(c) Ad hoc public contribution for specific development work.

Compulsory taxes include cess on land revenue at the rate of 6 pies per rupee, tax on building and non-agricultural land, tax on profession, yearly licence fee on brokers, etc., from the local Janapada Sabha, tolls on vehicles, pack-animals and market, water-rate and lighting fee. In addition to these, every panchayat is empowered to raise loans equal to 5 per cent of its revenue from a village development fund.

The budget of every panchayat, which is sanctioned by the Janapada authority, must provide for a closing balance of not less than one-sixth of the estimated normal income of the year. The following table gives the income and expenditure of Gram Panchayats since 1957-58 in the District.

Table No. XIV—14

Income and Expenditure of Gram Panchayats

Year	Damoh Tahsil		Hatta Tahsil	
	Receipts (in Rs.)	Expenditure (in Rs.)	Receipts (in Rs.)	Expenditure (in Rs.)
1957-58	36,076	24,937	9,680	5,079
1958-59	59,175	38,724	16,356	10,282
1959-60	47,173	28,848	18,905	11,636
1960-61	30,598	18,603	10,740	10,632
1961-62	25,637	19,644	17,885	12,007
1962-63	51,219	42,678	18,590	16,200
1963-64	29,936	19,438	12,724	7,584
1964-65	—	—	29,704	18,272
1965-66				
1966-67	N.A.		N.A.	
1967-68				
1968-69	106,205	217,525	82,679	1,63,870
1969-70	318,428	207,428	2,02,917	2,00,817
1970-71	226,092	137,437	2,34,473	1,42,688

Nyaya Panchayats

The Nyaya Panchayats are purely judicial bodies with powers to try minor offences and settle disputes of ordinary nature. The establishment of Nyaya

Panchayats aimed at providing village folk with cheaper, speedier and simple justice. Under Central Provinces and Berar panchayat Act of 1946, Nyaya Panchayats were constituted one each for a group of villages. Nyaya Panchayats consisted of at least five members. In Damoh District, 26 Nyaya Panchayats were established in 1948-49. This number remained the same till 1969-70. The detailed functions and working of Nyaya Panchayats have been discussed in the chapter on Law and Order and Justice.

Panchayati Raj

Panchayati Raj scheme is a broadening of the concept of rural extension and a further intensification of the programme of community development. A Rural Local Self Government Committee was appointed by the State Government[1] in 1957 to study the working of village panchayats. In the first phase of its implementation the Balwant Rai Mehta Commission was appointed by the Central Government in 1957, which recommended democratic diffusion of the centripetal power. It enunciated certain broad principles on which the existing panchayats were advised to be reconstituted so that they could form the base of the entire community development programme and supply it with necessary vitality and vigour.

Three tier system

In the light of these principles the Madhya Pradesh Panchayat Act VII was passed in 1962. The new Act envisages introduction of three tier system of Panchayats—Gram Panchayat at the village level, Janapada Panchayat at the Development Block level and Zila Panchayat at the district level.

Gram Sabhas and Gram Panchayats

Under this Act the Gram Sabha, consisting of all adults of the village, has been recognised as a statutory body, which shall meet at least twice a year to consider programme of work and the panchayat budget at the village level. Gram Sabhas are also to elect the members of the Gram Panchayats on the basis of 10 panchas for a population of 1,000 and one extra Panch for each additional 3,000 persons. Reserved seats have been provided for two co-opted women members, one representative of the co-operative society and one member from Scheduled Castes or Tribes. The following table shows the latest position of the number of gram sabhas and wards under the new Act in Damoh District as in 1971[2].

Table No. XIV—15
Number of Gram Sabhas and Wards

Name of Block	Number of Villages	Number of Gram Sabhas/Panchayats	Number of wards
1	2	3	4
1. Damoh	264	45	570
2. Patharia	149	28	415

1. Resolution No. 6105-XVIII, dt. 28th July, 1957.
2. The District Panchayats and Welfare Officer, Damoh.

3. Jabera	208	30	405
4. Tendukheda	220	23	356
5. Hatta	181	23	306
6. Batiagarh	198	27	371
7. Patera	180	24	325
Total	1,400	205	2,748

The Janapada Panchayat consists of, in addition to the elected Panchas varying from 15 to 30, one member each from the Co-operative marketing societies, one from each municipal body, one from Scheduled Castes and Scheduled Tribes, two women and the local M.L.A.s.

Composition of Zila Panchayat

The Zila Panchayat, extending its jurisdiction over the whole District, shall include sarpanchas of all Janapada Panchayats, M.L.A.s from the District and all the District Officers representing Public Health, Education, Agriculture and other Development Departments, one woman, one member of Scheduled Castes or Scheduled Tribes and one member representing the co-operative societies. The official members, however, have no right of voting.

The phase relating to the setting up of the third tier, namely, the Zila Panchayat, has not yet been implemented in the District.

The particulars of the recent Panchayat elections at the Gram Panchayat and Janapada Panchayat level are of interest in connection with the study of the actual implementation of Panchayati Raj in the District.

Gram Panchayat Elections, 1970

Out of the 205 Gram Phnchayats in the District, elections of 187 Panchayats were conducted in May, 1970 and that of the remaining 18 in October, 1970. As many as 476 wards were reserved exclusively for the members of the Scheduled Castes community out of the total 2,748. It means, out of every 6 wards one was reserved for them. Apart from this in 6 Gram Panchayats members of the Scheduled Castes community are co-opted. Similary, two lady members were co-opted in each of the 197 Gram Phnchayats and one each in the remaining 8 Panchayats, as one lady each was already elected to those eight.

There is no Scheduled Tribe in the District to the required number and hence there was no reservation of seats for them.

Another special feature is that the Gram Panchayats of Sitanagar and Binti had the privilege of electing a lady Sarpanch and Upsarpanch, respectively.

According to section 105 of the Madhya Pradesh Panchayats Act, 1962, all the seven Block areas have been declared as areas of the respective Janapada

Janapada Panchayats Elections, 1970

Panchayats and Janapada Panchayats were constituted at Block headquarters. In tahsil Damoh there are 4 Janapada Panchayats, namely, Damoh, Jabera, Patharia and Tendukheda, whereas in Hatta tahsil their number is 3, namely, Hatta, Patera and Batiagarh. The total number of members in these Janapada Panchayats is 126. Out of these, 23 seats were kept reserved for the Scheduled Castes. Their election was conducted on 18th December, 1970.

In each of these Janapada Panchayats two ladies have been co-opted in accordance with the provision in the aforesaid Act. The election of the President and the Vice-President was completed on 29th May, 1971. The first special meeting of the newly elected Janapada Panchayats was called on 15th August, 1971 in which 'Annual Plan' pertaining to the development of the area under their jurisdiction was formulated.

Nyaya Panchayats

There has been no change in the number of Nyaya Panchayats in both the Janapadas, Damoh and Hatta, and their number remained 16 and 10, respectively till the end of 1969-70. Other particulars regarding these Panchayats have been covered in the Chapter on Law and Order and Justice.

CHAPTER XV

EDUCATION AND CULTURE

What system of education prevailed in the District until the advent of the British in 1817[1] is a matter of conjecture, for no positive evidence is available in this regard. However, early epigraphical relics in the area provide references to Sanskrit which enjoyed a pride of place during the reign of successive dynasties who were ruling over the territory from time to time. The epigraph written in Rajasthani and Sanskrit unearthed at Jatashankar, a place famous for its fair held in honour of the deity of Mahadeo in Hatta Tahsil, points to a certain standard of intellectual and literary advancement in the area.

Early History

Late in the Medieval period, there emerged the indigenous education in the form of *Guru-Pathashala*, where children were taught arithmetic and portions of the Epics. It is worthwhile highlighting here, that these *Pathashalas* nurtured traditions of ancient mode of teaching.

Besides lack of patronage, the indigenous schools also suffered from other serious drawbacks. Mostly, the vagrant piety assumed the role of teachers who opened schools in the rains to be closed in winter, when they resumed their wanderings. But most important of all, the bulk of the students being poor could ill afford the luxury of education. More often than not they preferred to stay in the fields to help their parents.

Western Education

Though Damoh was administratively subordinate to Sagar till 1864,[2] James Paton's efforts to introduce systematic western education in the area did not seem to extend to Damoh District. The first school in the District was probably the Talaiya Branch School, established in 1847, with one Girja Charan Nema as its Headmaster. Under private management, the school was attended only by the boys of the place. Now there is no trace of this pioneer institution, except the building which is occupied by Rani Durgawati Girls Middle School. But for the said institution, there appeared to be no other systematic school in the District during the period. Nor did the authorities seem to have made any concerted effort to introduce western education until

1. *Damoh District Gazetteer*, p. 21.
2. Ibid. p. 21,

1863—the year marking the establishment of the Department of Education in the Central Provinces. The Department formulated schemes for introduction of a systematic type of schooling throughout the Central Provinces, including Domoh.

System of Education in Central Provinces

Having realised that Vernacular was the best medium in schools Government established Vernacular schools at the district and tahsil headquarters. Branch schools were also established where necessary. English schools were started at such places where there was scope for them to flourish. In addition, normal schools were also founded to train teachers. To ensure effective working of these institutions, Government introduced the inspection system. The ambit of School Inspectors extended to the primary schools too. Civil servants were also made responsible for the spread of education. The four principles that governed the Education Department were control, inspection, supply and special administration.

For the support of institutions funds were derived from four sources: first, annual State grant; second, cess levied at the rate of one per cent on land revenue (which was subsequently increased to two per cent); third, voluntary private contributions and subscriptions; and fourth, fees levied for the instruction of children.[1] To make the scheme popular, as also to get co-operation of people and of philanthropists, grants-in-aid were given to schools. Indigenous schools were given result-grants. To assist the inspection, committees were nominated for every Government school in the Province. The committees conveyed to the Government, popular opinion on matters concerning education and exercised some sort of control over the schools.[2] It was recorded in the eighties of the last century that "some school committees, more especially in Damoh and Saugor, where the committees are particularly well utilised, divide the boys of their schools amongst themselves. Each member takes down the name of the scholars residing near his own residence, and makes himself responsible for their attendanee at school. Committees reward the regular and rebuke habitual absentees. In Saugor and Damoh, school committees provide such excellent prizes, that the inspecting officer is half ashamed to give his own modest rewards".[3]

Yet the agricultural community rarely desired education. Indeed, they looked askance at the use of education for their children. They were, as a rule, quite content if their sons learnt the multiplication table and sufficient mental arithmetic to manage their simple bazar accounts.[4] This attitude of the bulk of the population of the Central Provinces in general, prevented the schemes enumerated above from making much headway for quite sometime.

1. Report by the C.P. Provincial Committee in the Education Commission, 1884, p 8.
2. ibid. p. 9.
3. ibid. pp. 89-90.
4. ibid. p. 13.

During the decade 1871-81, the position of education slightly deteriorated both in respect of the number of schools and students in Damoh District. Both the Government and private schools of all types seem to have declined, the former from 44 in 1871 to 42 in 1881, and the latter from 26 in 1871 to 10 in 1881. It appears that the reduction in the number of private schools in 1881 was due to the fact that schools which were not within the ambit of the Inspectorate were not taken into account. The enrolment, however, improved in Government schools from 2,095 to 2,160 students in 1881, but their number declined in private schools during the decade. The percentage of boys in schools to boys of school-going age in 1881 was just 9.4, and this must be considered as low in comparision to Sagar, where it was 10.8 in the same year. The percentage of girls in schools, to girls of school-going age was just 0.7 against 2.2 in Sagar, their actual number being 172.[1]

State of Education upto 1906

The position regarding the state of education during the last decade of the previous century, as well as during the early years of this century is given in the following Table:—

Table No. XV-1

Progress of Education upto 1906

Year	Total Pupils	Boys in Secondary Schools	Boys in Primary Schools	Girls under instruction
1892-93	4,280	321	3,749	210
1893-94	4,525	306	3,997	222
1894-95	4,127	287	3,605	234
1895-96	3,809	263	3,324	222
1902-03	4,285	215	3,847	223
1905-06	4,863	758	3,840	265

Source:—Reports on the State and Progress of Education in the Central Provinces.

It seems that upto 1902-03, there was no appreciable imporvement in the number of students in the District, though the number of public schools increased considerably. There were 83 such schools in 1901, as against 68 in 1891. As for the percentage of children in receipt of education to those of school-going age in 1904-05, it was 13.6 in the case of boys and 0.6 per cent in the case of girls. During the period, the District had eight middle schools—two English middle schools at Damoh and Hatta, and six Vernacular middle schools at Damoh, Hindoria, Patera, Raneh, Mariadoh and Patharia. The Vernacular middle school at Damoh was managed by the Mission clergy. There were

1. ibid. pp. 15 and 31.

68 primary schools, including 7 Government girls schools at Damoh, Hatta, Jabera, Patharia, Patera, Abhana and Mariadoh. At Damoh a technical school was maintained by the Mission of Disciples of Christ in connection with an orphanage, and an Urdu school supported by a Mohammadan society. As for expenditure, it was Rs. 34,000 in 1902-03, of which Rs. 8,000 was contributed by the Government.[1]

Organisational Set-up

When the 'Despatch of 1854' of English Education in India was received, the Saugor and Nerbudda Territories formed a part of the North-Western Provinces. All the educational institutions during the period were controlled by the Central Committee of Public Instruction. After 1854 the North-Western Provinces were split up into two circles for educational purposes. Being unwieldy, these circles were divided into four circles in 1856. The Circle comprising the Saugor and Nerbudda Territories had its headquarters at Sagar.

On establishment of the Education Department in 1862, the Central Provinces were divided into three circles namely, the northern comprising the Saugor and Nerbudda Territories, etc., the southern and the eastern, with an Inspector for each. To assist the Circle Inspectors, there was a District Inspector for each district. In early days, there was a three-tier control of primary education—the civil authorities, the Education Department and the local bodies being jointly responsible for the same. In 1885, however, the local bodies were made the chief controlling agencies—the Disrrict Councils being responsible for providing educational facilities in the district.

In pursuance of the policy laid down by the Government of substituting more efficient inspection for examination, a new Inspector's Circle was formed with headquarters at Hoshangabad.[2] The schools in Damoh and Hatta, however, continued to be under the charge of Inspector. Jabalpur Circle. But a need was again felt for reorganisation of circles in 1922-23, when five Inspectoral Circles were reduced to four. Sagar and Damoh (which earlier belonged to Jabalpur Circle) were transferred to the Nerbudda Circle.[3]

In 1938, there was yet another change in the set-up. The posts of Circle Inspectors were abolished and District Inspectors enjoying more powers were appointed. Since Damoh ceased to be a separate District in 1931, and was reduced to a sub-division of Sagar district, the education in Damoh during this period was a charge of the District Inspector of Schools, Sagar. He was responsible to the Divisional Superintendent of Education, Jabalpur. The divisional units were revived in the early 'forties with headquarters at Nagpur. But in 1942, the Divisional Superintendents were transferred to the headquarters of Revenue Divisions, except that Hoshangabad was made the headquar-

1. *Damoh District Gazetteer*, p. 179.
2. C.P. and Berar Education Report, 1905-06, p. 3.
3. ibid. 1922-23, p. 1.

ters of the Divisional Superintendent of Education, Jabalpur, for want of suitable accommodation at Jabalpur. Again, in 1946-47, the divisions were reconstituted, their number increasing to six. Presently, there are nine educational divisions, and the District Educational Officer, Damoh, works under the Divisional Superintendent of Schools, Jabalpur, who controls the secondary schools and basic training institutions in the District.

As for girls' education in Damoh, it was formerly under the charge of a separate Inspectress of Schools at Jabalpur, but now under the overall charge of Divisional Superintendent of Education, Jabalpur, who is assisted by a Lady Assistant.

In Damoh, most of the schools are under the administrative control of the Janapada Sabhas and Municipal Committees. The Goverenment institutions upto the middle stage are under the administrative control of the District Educational Officer, Damoh, while private schools are controlled by the private bodies, receiving grants from the Government for maintenance, etc. Technical education in the District is being controlled by the Director of Technical Education.

The District Inspectorate has its jurisdiction over all the primary and middle schools for purposes of inspection and primary examination. In 1961, there were eight Assistant District Inspectors of Schools, each in charge of one range consisting of 40 to 50 schools on an average. One Assistant District Inspectress of Schools looked after all girls schools in the District. In 1964-65 the number of Assistant Inspectors increased to 12, while one Assistant Inspectress of Schools continued to inspect girls schools in the District.

Literacy and Educational Standards

The Census of 1901 recorded a population of 2,85.326 in Damoh District with 10,686 male and 373 female literates, which constituted 7.44 per cent and 0.26 per cent of the total male and female population, respectively. In 1911, there was a sudden spurt in the population of the District to 3,33,647, whereas the number of literates rose only by 4,330. A decade later, however, the population fell to 2,87,136, the number of literates rising at the same time to 16,298. This rise in the number of literates viewed against the background of total population must be considered significant. This progress was the direct consequence of educational development programme launched during the decade. The years 1931 and 1941 recording 6.57 per cent and 10.29 per cent of total literates, respectively, indexed a significant increase of literates. The percentage of female literacy too showed considerable improvement in 1941. In that year, 17.06 per cent women were literate as compared to 11.98 per cent in 1931.

The following Table compares the tahsil-wise percentage of literacy for total, rural and urban areas of the District in 1951 and 1961 separately, and give total percentage figures for 1971.

Table No. XV—2

Growth of Literacy (1951-'71)

Tahsil		Percentage of literacy								
		Total			Rural			Urban		
		Persons	Males	Females	Persons	Males	Females	Persons	Males	Females
Hatta	1951	8.9	14.9	2.8	7.4	12.8	1.9	25.9	51.8	19.7
	1961	16.0	25.9	5.8	14.3	23.9	4.5	41.3	55.6	25.4
Damoh	1951	13.4	21.1	5.6	9.4	15.9	2.8	34.9	48.3	20.8
	1961	19.7	30.5	8.5	14.9	24.9	4.5	44.9	58.4	30.4
Damoh	1951	11.9	19.0	4.6	8.7	14.7	2.5	35.1	46.7	20.6
Distt.	1961	18.5	28.9	7.6	14.7	24.6	5.5	44.3	57.9	37.5
	1971	23.28	34.35	11.52	—	—	—	—	—	—

Source.—Census Reports, 1951, 1961 and 1971.

The above Table speaks of the impressive progress made by the District in the sphere of education. With a 56 per cent increase in its general literacy percentage over the 1951 level, the increase rises upto 70 per cent in rural and recedes to 26 per cent in urban areas over the same period. The reason for faster rate of development in rural than in urban areas seems to lie in the greater response to programmes of educational expansion there during the first two Five Year Plan periods.

With 18.5 per cent literates in 1961, Damoh District ranked 13th in literacy percentage among the districts of Madhya Pradesh. Damoh Tahsil has an evident edge over Hatta Tahsil in respect of literacy percentage, owing largely to better communication links, as also containing a much bigger urban component of population than Hatta Tahsil.

Another feature of literacy distribution in population is its greater concentration among males than among females. It is mainly owing to the traditional social inhibition regarding female education that still persists in the rural areas, but has crumbled down in the urban areas considerably. During the decade 1951-61, the male literacy advanced from 19.0 per cent to 28.9 per cent, and that of females from 4.6 to 7.6 per cent.

Of the 80,874 literate population in the District in 1961, 48,004 were literate without educational level, 29,993 had education upto primary or junior basic levels and only 2,877 had education upto matriculation or levels above that. The following Table gives the distribution of literate population by educational standards in urban areas of the District according to 1961 Census.

Table No. XV—3

Educational Standards (1961)

Educational Standard	Total (Urban)		
	Persons	Males	Females
Literates (without educational level)	11,326	7,007	4,319
Junior Basic or Primary	11,307	8,137	3,170
Matriculation or Higher Secondary	1,658	1,442	216
Technical Diploma not equal to Degree	59	55	4
Non-Technical Diploma not equal to Degree	4	3	1
University Degree or Post-graduate Degree other than Technical Degree	264	228	36
Technical Degree or Diploma:—			
Engineering	9	9	—
Medicine	25	23	3
Agriculture	3	3	—
Veterinary	6	6	—
Technology	—	—	—
Teaching	47	39	8
Others	—	—	—

Source:—Damoh District Census Handbook, 1961.

Spread of Education among Women

If the spread of education in the District has been slow, it has been slower in the case of women. Numerous were the reasons for the slow growth of women's education. "The *Pardah* system, early marriage and the attitude of elder women and a large number of men, naturally conservative, led to the fear that education would destroy much that they revere in the traditional position of women in Indian society".[1] No wonder, therefore, that even during the second decade of this century, the Beckett Committee on Female Education in Central Provinces found nearly all the womenfolk still illiterate. In fact the traditional apathy towards female education continued to exist. Besides, lack of separate schools for girls, and good trained teachers contributed to the snail pace progress of women's education.

Girls Schools

Nevertheless, the fact remains that, as early as in 1863 there were two Government primary schools for girls, situated at Damoh and Hatta. In 1882, their number stood at four, though 172 girls that attended schools in that year constituted just 0.7 per cent of the girls of school-going age.[2] A decade later, the number of girls at schools was 210.[3] It remained more or less the same until quite sometime. In 1906-07, however, there was a slight improvement in that there were 321 girls attending schools, constituting 1.4 per cent of the girls of school-goining age.[4] During this period there were seven Government girls primary schools

1. Memorandum on the Development of Education in the C.P. and Berar, 1916-17 to 1926-27, p. 30.
2. Report by the C.P. Provincial Committee in the Education Commission, 1884, p. 31.
3. C.P. Education Report, 1895-96, pp. 6-7
4. Ibid. 1907-08, p. XXXII.

situated at Damoh, Hatta, Jabera, Pataria, Patera, Abhana and Mariadoh.[1] In 1918, with the opening of Class V, the primary school at Damoh was converted into a Hindi middle school, having initially only 12 students. It, however, became a full-fledged Hindi middle school six years later. It continued to be so until it was made an English middle school in 1947. This school was upgraded into a high school in 1948, and a higher secondary school in 1958. It is now known as the Maharani Laxmibai Girls Higher Secondary School.

There was a declining trend in the attendance in girls school of Central Provinces in the 'twenties, though Damoh was not affected by this trend. In fact Damoh had 1,138 girl students in 1926-27.[2] In order to encourage more girls to attend boys' schools, school masters were offered bonuses. This experiment was successful to some extent, but the scheme had to be abandoned in 1931-32, owing to financial stringency.

Yet another landmark in the annals of girls education was the partial implementation of the recommendations of Beckett Committee on Female Education. It pleaded in 192`-28 for more publicity through non-official agencies to overcome the general apathy towards female education. It also said that the responsibility of opening new Vernacular schools for girls be transferred from the Government to the local bodies, and that a 50 per cent grant of the approved expenditure be given to the local bodies for the purpose. As for syllabus of primary classes, the Committee recommended that besides other subjects, girls should be taught geography, sewing and physical exercises, emphasising at the same time that gardening, handwork and drawing be made optional subjects. These schemes seem to have had an encouraging effect on the District, for in 1935-36, the percentage of girls in primary schools to that of girls of school-going age stood at 7.6. A decade earlier it was just 0.8 per cent.[3]

Beckett Committee on Female Education

As for education of girls beyond the primary stage, the Government started admitting them to Vernacular middle and high schools on equal terms with boys. They were also offered scholarships.[4] Besides, Damoh Municipal Committee too opened a middle school for girls in 1936. In 1935-36, on an average 136 students attended middle and high schools as against 120 in 1931-32. In 1941-42 there was steep fall in the number of girls attending the post-primary schools, their average attendance declining to 59.[5] In 1943 there was yet another effort to examine the position of women's education afresh. But the appointment of an officer on special duty for the purpose, and the follow-up measures taken, exerted little or no impact on women's education.

1. *Damoh District Gazetteer*, p. 179.
2. C.P. and Berar Education Report, 1923, p. xxxvii.
3. *Damoh District Gazetteer*, Vol. B, p. 86.
4. C.P. and Berar Education Report for the Quinquennium ending 31st March, 1937, p. 6.
5. *Damoh District Gazetteer*, Vol. B, p. 86.

A glance at the female literacy percentage, as given earlier, will reveal that it has increased by about 65.2 per cent during 1951-61. While there were hardly 7,719 women literates in 1951, their number increased to 16,329 in 1961. The increase in the female literacy could be attributed to the special attention their education received at the hands of the popular Government. In 1960, a State Council for Women's Education was constituted in accordance with the recommendations of the National Council for Women's Education. This body has been advising the Government on matters relating to girls education. This again has given a fillip to women's education in the State, and the following Table reveals the headway made in this direction from 1960-61 to 1970-71 in the District.

Girls Education in post-Independence era

Table No. XV-4

Growth of Girls Education 1960-1971

Year	Primary		Basic		Middle		High/Higher Secondary	
	Schools	Pupils	Schools	Pupils	Schools	Pupils	Schools	Pupils
1960-61	12	1,538	—	—	5	1,322	2	548
1961-62	17	2,554	—	—	9	1,305	3	590
1964-65	19	6,636	3	1,702	6	1,374	3	1,379
1965-66	19	7,140	3	1,884	6	1.471	4	1,419
1966-67	19	7,531	3	2,069	5	1,519	4	1,612
1967-68	19	2,573	3	556	6	1,024	5	1,578
1968-69	20	3,181	3	304	6	7,08	5	1,610
1969-70	21	2,900	3	591	6	6,90	5	1,664
1970-71	21	8,864	3	1,828	6	1,246	5	1,736

Source: District Educational Officer, Damoh.

It is evident that the number of institutions of all categories have increased through the years. Similarly, the policy of appointing lady teachers in girls schools has resulted in the increase of girl students. Except in the case of middle schools, there has been an all round increase in the number of girls attending schools.

As for collegiate education, a college exclusively for women, named Kamla Nehru Mahila Mahavidyalaya, began functioning at Damoh since 1964. It offers courses upto the degree level. In 1966-67, the College had 40 students with 7 teachers on the staff. Details about this institution could be found in the section on Collegiate Education of this Chapter.

Girls College in Damoh District

Spread of Education Among Backward Classes and Tribes

The Government in Central Provinces and Berar had been alive to the problems confronting the Backward Classes, and had taken steps to ameliorate their condition from time to time. On the recommendations of the Committee appointed by the Government to enquire into the facilities for the education of Depressed Classes, the Government resolved in 1922[1] to give liberal grants to hostels and schools intended for them. Bonuses were given to headmasters as an incentive to take special interest in these students, so as to enable more of them to pass the Primary Certificate Examination. Monthly scholarships to students of middle schools, high schools and colleges were instituted. Students not living with their parents were allowed more liberal scholarships. So far, the depressed classes in the District were not conscious of their educational and social disabilities, and did not manifest a determination to work for their own amelioration, as was evident in other areas of the Province.[2] In 1946 the Thakkar Bapa Committee surveyed their condition and effective measures for their all-round development began to be taken since Independence.

The following Table depicts the position of the Scheduled Caste population in Damoh District *vis-a-vis* their literacy according to Census 1961

Table No. XV—5
Literacy among Scheduled Castes (1961)

Scheduled Castes	Population	Literates	Percentage of literates
Males	40,612	4,794	11.3
Females	39,722	458	1.2
Total	80,334	5,252	6.5

Source: Damoh District Census Handbook, 1961.

Viewed against the background of the handicaps this class had, the percentage of literacy among males in the District should be considered as encouraging. But the percentage of total literacy among them (6.5) compares rather unfavourably with literacy in the District, which was 18.5 per cent in 1961. About 78.6 per cent of the literate and educated persons among the Scheduled Castes were merely literate without any educational level. Those possessing primary education level constituted about 26.5 per cent, and matriculation and levels above that about 0.9 per cent.

Literacy among Backward Classes and Tribes

The Vanvasi Sewa Mandal, Mandla, which has been actively engaged in the amelioration of these classes in Mandla District took the initiative for

1. C.P. and Berar Education Report, 1922-23, p. 27.
2. ibid. Quinquennium ending 31st March, 1927, p. 113.

educational advancement of these classes in Damoh also. The Mandal extended its activities in Damoh District in 1954, when 2 middle schools at Dhanger and Madiadoh, and 10 primary schools at various places were started by it on cent per cent grant basis, offered by the Government. Two hostels were also managed by the Mandal for the students of these classes. However, these schools and hostels were taken over by the Tribal Welfare Department in July, 1964, only to be transferred to the Education Department later in April, 1965. The following Table gives an idea of the hostel facilities made available to the students of all Scheduled Castes and Tribes in the District.

Table No. XV—6

Hostel facilities for Scheduled Caste and Tribe Students (1965-1971)

Year	No. of Hostels for all Scheduled Castes and Tribes		No. of seats available	No. of inmates		Amount spent (Rs.)
	Boys	Girls		boys	girls	
1965-66	2	—	60	47	Nil	12,388 00
1966-67	2	—	60	55	Nil	15,758.00
1967-68	3	—	80	71	Nil	16,292 00
1968-69	3	—	80	49	Nil	12,878 55
1969-70	4	—	100	44	Nil	14,317.23
1970-71	5	—	120	74	Nil	38,713.47

Source: District Tribal Welfare Assistant, Damoh.

In 1964 there were 191 students belonging to these classes in the middle schools and 592 in the primary schools in Damoh. The number of teachers was 8 in the middle schools and 23 in the primary. The hostels at Dhangore and Madiadoh, however, were still being run and managed by the Tribal Welfare Department. During the years 1964-65 and 1965-66 Government spent Rs. 9,900 and Rs. 12,388, respectively, on these hostels.

Scholarship for Backward class and Tribe Students

Under the scheme of grant of scholarships, etc., the Tribal Welfare Department distributed a sum of Rs. 16,857 during the Second Plan period among the students of these classes. As no tribe has been Scheduled in the District, the *Adivasi* students are covered under the Backward Classes for purposes of these benefits. During the Third Plan period 3,968 boys of the Scheduled Castes and 1,229 boys of the Backward Classes were awarded scholarships, etc., amounting to Rs. 2.62 lakhs and Rs. 0.63 lakh, respectively. Apart from these, 155 post-matric scholarships amounting to Rs. 0.30 lakh were also distributed among the students of these classes during the Third Five year Plan period. The following Table gives the number of Scholarships and amounts distributed among Scheduled Caste and Tribe students during the year 1965-66 to 1970-71,

Table No. XV—7

Scholarships awarded to Scheduled Caste and Tribe Students, (1965-1971).

Year	Pre-Matric No. of Scholarship Holders			Amount Distributed (Rs.)	Post-Matric No. of Scholarship Holders			Amount Distributed
	Adivasi	Harijan	Total		Adivasi	Harijan	Total	
1965-66	239	889	1128	109388 00	—	26	26	9039.00
1966-67	256	947	1203	97210.[illegible]0	1	39	40	13745.00
1967-68	227	958	1185	147299.25	—	68	68	18086.00
1968-69	216	1019	1235	121584.00	1	109	110	36905.80
1969-70	210	964	1174	112035.15	—	105	105	42088.00
1970-71	186	933	1119	105688.80	—	74	74	21950.00

Source: District Tribal Welfare Assistant, Damoh.

General Education

Pre-Primary Education

A systematic pre-primary education is of recent origin. It is a stage preparatory to primary education, meant for children of the age-group 3-6 years. It seeks to inculcate in them school-going habit and a sense of comradeship. There were three nursery schools or Bal Mandirs in the District in 1956, when the District was reconstituted. The schools, which were managed by local bodies, had one trained teacher in each. In 1956-57 there were 180 students, of whom 64 were girls. There has been a steady increase in their numbers from year to year until 1960-61, when the total number of students rose to 212. The total expenditure on these institutions was Rs. 7,795 in 1960-61. In 1966-67, there were 4 schools with an enrolment of 302 students and 8 teachers. In 1970-71, the number of Pre-primary schools was 8 with an enrolment of 443 students, taught by 14 teachers.

In 1962, the Gramin Mahila Samiti, Damoh, entered the field to run the first private-managed Bal Mandir. Starting with 25 students in 1962, its strength increased to 30 in 1965-66. The special feature of this institution is that students are given free snacks and milk, a project in which the Red Cross Society lends a helping hand to the management.

Primary Education

In 1875-76 there were 39 primary schools managed by the Deputy Commissioner. They were in addition to the 29 village schools existing then. The primary schools had a total strength of 1,448 scholars, whereas the village schools educated 1,110 pupils.[1] In 1882 the total of schools declined to 43, of which 34 were rural schools. Of the nine urban schools, two were English primary schools

Progress of Primary Education

1. C.P. Education Report, 1875-76, pp. 9 and 35.

and the rest vernacular. To give a break-up of pupils in these, 52 students were in the English primary schools, 384 in the vernacular and 1,700 in the rural schools.

The following table shows the progress of primary education in the District from 1910-11 to 1943-44.

Table No. XV—8

Progress of Primary Education (1910-1970)

Year	No. of Primary Schools	Average daily attendance of Pupils	Expenditure (in Rs.)
1910-11	87	5,583	26,171
1915-16	95	6,630	39,173
1925-26	112	4,944	70,644
1935-36	109	4,956	67,229
1943-44	110	6,120	1,07,155
1961-62	332	19,885	7,56,985
1962-63	355	21,176	9,51,252
1963-64	421	27,165	11,14,879
1964-65	425	29,239	12,81,693
1965-66	425	30,770	13,27,450
1966-67	437	31,966	14,65,978
1967-68	437	31,056	25,84,277
1968-69	441	31,938	25,52,612
1969-70	445	32,840	29,11,225
1970-71	459	—	—
1971-72	178	—	--

Source.—District Educational Officer, Damoh.

It appears that, till 1901 education in Damoh District has been in a stagnant condition. The dismal record of failure of harvest and scarcity which began in Damoh in 1892-93 came to an end in 1900 A.D. Consequently, signs of progress were visible in the sphere of education. To improve the situation, Government abolished the system of result-grants in 1902-03, and instead gave fixed grants. Also, the system of examining students thrice at the lower, middle and upper primary levels was abolished. From 1905-06 the number of schools gradually increased.

Primary Education Act, 1920

Passing of the Primary Education Act in 1920, which required the introduction of compulsion in select areas by stages, was a landmark in the history of primary education. In 1927-28 a scheme was drawn up for the municipal area of Damoh with the help of an officer specially deputed for the purpose.[1] But the scheme, it seems, had to be shelved owing to financial or other considerations.

1. C.P. and Berar Education Report, 1927-28, p. 22.

At the end of the decade, the number of primary schools in the District increased to 116 with an average attendance of 5,085 pupils. There was a set-back to education in the 'thirties, and it could be explained in terms of the general economic depression and financial stringency which resulted *inter alia* in the reduction of Government grant by 20 per cent to local bodies and by 15 per cent to private bodies.[1] But the cut was restored, though partially, the next year (1933-34).[2] However, most of the local bodies reduced the pay of teachers due to financial stringency. These factors had a direct impact on the number of schools functioning and the number of scholars attending them. However, good teachers were given efficiency allowance on the advice of the inspecting staff and the inefficients only were penalised.[3]

These measures, aimed at raising the standard of education, however, took some time to fructify. During the decade that followed, both the number of scholars and schools kept on increasing. This again led to the inevitable result of wastage and stagnation at the primary school stage, for there could not have been proper screening of candidates seeking admission. The only possible step that the authorities could have taken to prevent wastage was to raise the age-limit for admission to class I. Simultaneously, infant classes were abolished in girls primary schools.[4] Yet another complaint has been that the local bodies frequently transferred many teachers, not necessarily to ensure efficiency. The Government had, therefore, to warn them that in no particular year more than 25 per cent of the teachers should be transferred, cautioning at the same time that violation of the rule would affect the grants.

Vidya Mandir Scheme

An important feature during the decade (1931-40) was the introduction of Vidya Mandir scheme in the Province in 1938-39, and the adoption and introduction of revised syllabus in Vidya Mandirs, prepared on the lines of the Zakir Hussain Syllabus. Adding to the problems of the 'thirties, the 'forties too opened with further stress and strain caused by the War-time conditions. The financial position of local bodies remained unimproved, resulting in general stagnation in the growth of primary education. The number of local bodies schools remained 110, attended by 7,308 students during 1946-47. As a measure of relief, the Government subsidised the local bodies for paying the cost of living allowance of Rs. 8 per month to primary school teachers.[5]

Curricula Committee, 1921

As for the curriculum, the Government has been incessantly trying to improve it with a view to raising the standard of education. The Curricula Committee of 1921 had recommended a four-year course and vernacular medium in primary schools. The curriculum, the Committee recommended, should consist of reading, writing, arithmetic,

1. ibid. 1932-33, p. 29.
2. ibid. for the Quinquennium 1932-37, p. 7.
3. ibid. 1934-35, p. 36.
4. ibid. for the Quinquennium ending 1932-37, pp. 6-7.
5. ibid. for the Quinquennium ending 1947, p. 10.

geography and physical training with gardening, drawing and handwork as optional subjects. The recommendations were accepted and implemented in 1924-25.[1] In fact the simultaneous working of three types of syllabi in primary schools, namely, the old syllabus, the revised syllabus of 1937 and the Basic syllabus during the 'forties with the introduction of the Vidya Mandir scheme, created some confusion. Accordingly, the Department of Education in the Province contemplated putting an end to the multiplicity of the syllabi, and to have one common syllabus—the Basic Syllabus—for the whole of the Province.[2]

If the Second World War gave a set-back to the educational development in the District, the return of popular ministries more than compensated the loss.

Primary Education in Post-Independence period

Local bodies got increased grants, enabling them to improve pay-scales and allowances of teachers, and to provide such facilities as Provident Fund scheme, etc. Grants-in-aid paid to them ranged from 50 to 100 per cent of the actual expenditure. Janapada Sabhas, which replaced the District Councils, took over primary schools in 1948. The year 1950 marks an epoch-making event in the annals of education. The Indian Constitution laid down that all children below 14 years of age should get free and compulsory primary education. In 1956, when the States were reorganised, class V of middle school was added to the primary course for the sake of uniformity throughout the State of Madhya Pradesh. An integrated syllabus was introduced in all primary schools of the State in July 1969, which included craft-work, etc.

In 1957, the District had 275 primary schools with 18,479 pupils attending them.[3] Seven years later, the position improved considerably. There were 361 primary schools attended by 30,980 students in 1964.[4] The next year saw a further increase of four schools, though the enrolment in them decreased to 26,429. In 1964-65 the total expenditure on primary education in the District was Rs. 10,19,563 of which the State Government spent Rs. 1,70,100. In 1966-67 there were 363 schools, 900 teachers and 2,78,700 students. In 1970-71, there were 395 schools with 851 teachers and 28,972 students.

Compulsory primary education for boys was introduced in different parts of Mahakoshal region under the Central Provinces and Berar Primary Education Act of 1920. But it was not until the 1st of September 1952 that it was ushered in at Damoh. Restricted to the municipal area of Damoh, compulsion was meant only for boys of the age-group 6-14. An effort, however, was made in 1927-28, and a scheme was drawn up for the municipal area of Damoh. But owing to financial stringency then, the scheme appears to have been shelved.

Compulsory Primary Education

1. Ibid, 1924-25, p. 2.
2. Ibid, for the Quinquennium ending 1947, p. 21.
3. Educational Survey, 1957, Vol. I, p. 46.
4. Development of Education in M.P., 1947-64, p. 88.

The Act was replaced by the Madhya Pradesh Compulsory Education Act of 1956. Again a new Law was passed for the reorganised State of Madhya Pradesh in 1962.

The following Table shows the number of institutions in which compulsory primary education was introduced and the number of scholars and teachers from 1956-57 to 1960-61.

Table No. XV—9

Progress of Compulsory Primary Education (1956-64)

Year	No. of Schools	No. of Students	No. of Teachers	Expenditure (in Rs.)
1956-57	7	1,434	51	54,720
1957-58	7	1,582	54	57,902
1958-59	15	3,645	105	1,08,242
1959-60	15	3,712	108	1,55,752
1960 61	15	3,783	109	1,55,328
1961-62	15	3,329	101	1,56,700
1962-63	15	3,820	103	1,83,305
1963-64	15	4,210	111	1,85,485

Source:—District Educational Officer, Damoh.

Neither in 1963-64 nor in 1964-65, was there any increase in the number of schools under this Scheme. Only the number of students in these years increased to 4,218 and 4,500, respectively. The average attendance in these schools, both in 1963-64 and 1964-65, was 95 per cent. No fees were charged from the students of those schools which were under compulsion in select areas.

Middle School Education

Progress of Middle School Education

Earlier, middle schools were of two types, vernacular and Anglo vernacular. Vernacular middle schools comprised class V, VI and VII. These being in conjunction with primary schools, were under the same headmaster, and were managed by local authorities. Their function was to provide inexpensive education. However, students taking courses in these could not join high schools, which began at class IX. Thus these schools were intended for those who wanted to continue their education after their primary school stage, but were not desirous of high school education. The medium of instruction in these schools was, as the very name suggests, Vernacular, though English was introduced as an optional subject at a later stage.

Anglo-Vernacular middle schools comprised classes V to VIII, and were preparatory to high schools. English was an important subject of the curriculum in these schools. At the end of the course, students were required to take

high school entrance and scholarship examination to join high schools. The system of entrance examination was instituted in 1917, with the obvious intention of weeding out unfit candidates from the high schools.

In 1895-96, there were seven middle schools in the District, of which five were vernacular middle schools. The other two were the 1st grade Middle School at Damoh with 136 pupils and the 2nd grade Middle School at Hatta with 63 pupils. The five vernacular schools had a total strength of 431 pupils.[1] The District Council which was running the Hatta Middle School had asked for its provincialisation in 1908-09, as it had no funds to run it. In that year the percentage of attendance in middle schools was 70.01 in the case of boys and 64.07 in the case of girls.[2] The number of vernacular middle schools had increased to six by 1908-09, and the enrolment in them stood at 693 in that year.

High School Education Act, 1922

After the enactment of High School Education Act, 1922 in Central Provinces, a Board was constituted to regulate and supervise high school education, and prescribe courses for middle school classes in the Province. In 1923-24, a uniform curriculum both for vernacular and Anglo-vernacular middle schools was introduced. English was made an optional subject in both the types of schools. The reorganisation of classes made in 1923-24 reduced the middle department from four to three, and increased the high school department from three to four classes.[4] But this arrangement having evoked great resentment, Government permitted those desirous of going to high schools to join the final class of the Anglo-vernacular school.

The Damoh Municipal Committee opened an Anglo-vernacular middle school in 1927-28.[5] The opening of Anglo-vernacular middle schools had an immediate and direct impact on vernacular schools, as English was in great demand among the pupils. In 1928-29 the Inspector, Jabalpur Circle, observed: "Vernacular middle schools having been found unpopular in small towns with an anglo-vernacular middle school, the process of abolishing vernacular middle classes was begun during the year in Damoh district."[6]

An attempt was made, with encouraging results, to introduce instruction in agriculture in some schools with the assistance of the Agriculture Department. For practical work, departmental farms at Mawganj (Damoh) and Patharia in Damoh District were used. The District Council, Damoh, provided funds for the purchase of apparatus in Patharia school.[7]

1. C.P Education Report. 1895-96, Appendix—D, p XXXIV,
2. C.P. and Berar Education Report, 1908-09, p. 11.
3. ibid. 1909-10, p. 26
4. ibid. 1922-23, p. 4
5. ibid. 1927-28, p. 11.
6. ibid. 1928-29, p. 20
7. ibid. 1929-30, pp 33-34.

The following Table gives details about the middle schools in the District since 1956, the year in which the District was reconstituted.

Table No. XV-10

Progress of Middle School Education (1956-1971)

Year	Schools		Scholars		Teachers		Expenditure (in Rs.)
	Boys	Girls	Boys	Girls	Men	Women	
1956-57	24	Nil	5,708	Nil	221	—	2,74,764
1960-61	37	5	7,201	—	265	—	2,07,977
1963-64	109	9	8,200	1,305	N.A.	53	3,29,427
1964-65	47	6	6,823	1,837	288	56	5,52,362
1965-66	47	6	6,943	1,950	288	56	5,78,239
1966-67	54	6	6,303	1,951	288	61	7,23,446
1967-68	59	6	5,854	1,921	263	64	6,60,161
1968-69	67	6	7,898	1,494	296	45	6,82,062
1969-70	68	6	7,728	1,569	314	47	7,83,622
1970-71	71	6	7,840	1,602	323	42	—

Note:—Inclusive of basic schools.

Source:—District Educational Officer, Damoh.

The figures denote an all round development in the sphere of middle school education in the District due to incessant efforts of the Government under the Plan schemes. In 1957-58 an integrated syllabus on basic pattern was prepared and introduced. This in fact meant paying attention to craft-work in the ordinary middle schools too.

Basic Education

Basic Education was introduced in the District in 1947. Although the Vidya Mandir Scheme, to which the roots of basic education could be traced, was introduced earlier in some districts of the Central Province, Damoh was not amongst them. In 1947, two existing middle schools in each tahsil of the District were taken over for conversion into senior basic schools. Later, in 1950, a syllabus was chalked out, keeping in view the concept of basic education, and the same was introduced in some primary, middle and high schools. Basic schools are of two categories—junior and senior. The senior basic schools, which offer a course of eight years, follow the syllabus of Hindustani Talimi Sangh, while the junior basic schools, which offer a five-year course, follow what is known as the integrated syllabus. The following Table gives details of these Basic schools in the District from 1956 to 1971.

Table No. XV-11

Growth of Basic Education (1956-1971)

Year	Junior			Senior		
	Schools	Scholars	Teachers	Schools	Scholars	Teachers
1956-57	8	3,427	24	2	435	18
1957-58	8	4,195	26	2	484	19
1958-59	38	3,217	91	12	2,693	94
1959-60	57	4,528	127	22	4,480	158
1960-61	57	4,381	128	22	4,672	158
1964-65	64	5,612	154	16	4,202	171
1965-66	64	5,653	159	16	4,282	171
1966-67	64	6,128	182	16	3,771	134
1967-68	64	6,201	203	16	3,443	124
1968-69	64	6,171	177	16	3,620	119
1969-70	64	6,547	191	16	3,532	117
1970-71	64	6,580	186	16	3,766	126

Source:—District Educational Officer, Damoh.

It has been the policy of the Government to switch over speedily from the traditional to the basic type of education. The scheme was also included in the Second and Third Five Year Plans of the State. To this end, an integrated syllabus was prepared in 1957-58 to be introduced in the entire State. In view of the introduction of this integrated syllabus in all primary and middle schools, the Government slackened its effort for converting primary and middle schools into junior and senior basic schools, respectively. In 1964-65 there were 16 senior basic and 64 junior basic schools in the District, imparting instruction to 4,202 and 5,512 students, respectively. The number of teachers in these schools was 161 and 150, respectively. Of these, one senior basic and four junior basic schools were run by the Government and the remaining were managed by the local bodies, etc. The Government spent a sum of Rs. 2,30,406 on senior basic education and Rs. 2,19,560 on junior basic education during 1964-65. The position in respect of basic schools remained the same in 1966-67 but the number of students and teachers increased to 6,128 and 182, respectively, in junior basic schools and decreased to 3,871 and 134, respectively, in senior basic schools.

Secondary Education

The first high school[1] comprising classes V to X in the District was established by the Government in 1919. It was started in pursuance of the policy of the Government to maintain one Government high school in each district to serve the purpose of a model school. The high school prepared pupils for

1. This institution was converted into a Multipurpose Higher Secondary School in 1958.

the High School Certificate Examination which was conducted by the High School Board. The Board itself was established after the enactment of the High School Education Act in 1922. The Board had wide powers, such as recognising high schools, determining courses of study, etc.[1]

Government High School, Damoh

The aforesaid Government High School, Damoh, was being held in the local middle school building for quite some time, though the building was not commodious enough to house all the high school classes. Extensions to the building were, however, completed in 1925-26. The School made steady progress, and a good number of students who appeared in the High School Certificate Examination came out successful. The percentage of pass in 1922-23 was 60, which further improved to 77 in 1929-30 and 92.8 in 1933-34.

The subjects prescribed by the High School Board in 1935 allowed little or no choice to the candidates to opt for their favourite subjects. In order to overcome this defect, more and more subjects were added to the curriculum, and at a certain stage a student found himself with a very wide range of subjects to choose from. This encouraged a tendency to choose those subjects that secured good marks. Besides other subjects, Urdu was introduced in 1940-41 in Damoh High School.[2] It is interesting to note in this context that Agriculture was also one of the subjects introduced in Damoh and Hatta High Schools.

Dr. V.S. Jha's Revised Syllabus

The Government felt that the entire structure needed an overhauling. The High School Examination Board, therefore, appointed Dr. V.S. Jha, who prepared a revised syllabus which was introduced in 1950. One significant aspect of the revised syllabus was that it aimed at preparing the pupils passing out of the High Schools to either enter the higher institutions of education or, alternatively, to face the challenging world they were confronted with. The syllabus insisted that due emphasis should be paid to the allround development of the students, and to this end it recommended that sufficient provision should be made for well-equipped libraries and gymnasiums.

Mudaliar Commission, 1953

In 1953 the Government of India appointed the Secondary Education Commission, popularly referred to as the Mudaliar Commission. As recommended by it, the Government of Madhya Pradesh started converting the high schools into higher secondary schools and multi-purpose higher secondary schools. The reorganisation of States in 1956 changed not only the geographical boundaries of the State of Madhya Pradesh, but also affected the administrative pattern of the high school education. At that time there were three Boards in the integrating units, namely, the Mahakoshal Board, the Madhya Bharat Board

1. ibid. 1922-23, p. 8.
2. ibid. 1940-41, p. 1.

and the Ajmer Board. The new Secondary Education Act enforced with effect from 28th April, 1959, brought into being the Board of Secondary Education in the new State, with the Director of Public Instruction, as its *ex-officio* Chairman.

High school courses started from class VI and went on upto class I, whereas higher secondary schools and Multi-purpose higher secondary schools ended with class XI. In multi-purpose higher secondary schools emphasis is laid on discovering the latent talents of students and fully developing them. With this objective in view, subjects having a bearing on crafts, arts and industries have been introduced. The syllabus followed in multi-purpose higher secondary schools is uniform throughout the State, and is prescribed by the Madhya Pradesh Board of Secondary Education.

Higher Secondary Schools in Damoh District

In 1958 four boys and a girls high school were converted into higher secondary schools in the District. Of these, four were situated at Damoh. They were the Government Higher Secondary School, Municipal Higher Secondary School, Rashtriya Jain Higher Secondary School, and the Maharani Laxmi Bai Higher Secondary Girls School. The fifth school situated at Patharia was run by the Janapada Sabha of the place. Earlier in 1956, the first Multi-purpose Higher Secondary School of the District was opened by the Government in Hatta.

In 1964-65, the District had 2 multi-purpose and 20 higher secondary schools, the institution of high schools being completely extinct by this time. Situated at Damoh and Hatta, the two multi-purpose higher secondary schools were managed by the Government. Of the twenty higher secondary schools, eight each were managed by the Government and local bodies and four by private managements. All the private schools were situated at Damoh. Run at a cost of Rs. 6,42,859, the 22 secondary schools had a total strength of 6,505 pupils. All the non-Government schools in the District received aid from the Government, the quantum of aid being 50 per cent of expenditure for urban schools and 75 per cent for rural schools. By 1966-67 one more higher secondary school came into being, and the total number of schools in the District increased to 23 with 7208 students and 302 teachers. In 1970-71, the total number of higher secondary schools increased to 25 with 6,190 students and 312 teachers.

Collegiate Education

Government College, Damoh

Until 1951 there was no college in the District, and students desirous of prosecuting higher studies were required to go either to Sagar or Jabalpur. In that year, a small group of enthusiastic persons formed the Shiksha Prasar Samiti, and founded an Intermediate College in Damoh town. In 1957 the College started courses in Arts subjects upto the degree level, while in 1960-61 Commerce and

Science subjects were also introduced. The year 1961 saw the opening of Law classes too. Since 1965 the College is also offering post-graduate courses in Arts faculty. In 1965 the College was handed over by the Samiti to the Government of Madhya Pradesh.

That the College has been gradually growing could be seen not only from the new courses it has been offering from time to time, but also from the steady increase in the strength of both teachers and students. There were 110 students on the rolls of the College in 1958-59, which number rose to 136 the next year. In 1960-61 the number further rose to 181, the increase being the direct result of opening Science and Commerce classes. With the introduction of Law faculty in 1961-1962, the enrolment of students further increased to 290. In 1964-65 the number of students stood at 527. The number of teachers in the College has likewise been steadily increasing. There were 2 teachers in 1958-59, which number increased to 13 in 1960-61 and to 21 in 1961-62, including honorary lecturers in Law. However, during 1964-65 the strength of the teaching staff declined to 19.

National Cadet Corps training was introduced in the College on an optional basis in 1961, and there were 60 cadets at that time. With the training being made compulsory in 1963-64, the raising of two companies of the strength of 200 cadets each was then authorised.

The College has a well-equipped library, and is affiliated to the University of Saugar, Sagar.

Kamala Nehru Girls College, Damoh

The long felt need for an exclusive college for women was fulfilled in 1964, when the Kamala Nehru Mahila Mahavidyalaya was started. The College was founded by the Rashtriya Jain Shikshan Prasarak Samiti, which later changed its name to Shastri Smarak Shiksha Nigam. The College offers courses in Arts faculty upto the degree stage. During 1966-67, the College had a strength of 40 students which increased to 126 in 1970-71 with 7 lecturers on the teaching staff. A sum of Rs. 9,737 was spent during the first year to run the institution. The Government granted it an aid of Rs. 9,276 the following year, when its total expenditure was Rs. 15,969. The Government aid was increased to Rs. 10,662 in 1966-67. In 1970-71 the income and expenditure of the College amounted to Rs. 35,617 and Rs. 52,896, respectively. The College maintains a library and is affiliated to the University of Saugar, Sagar. It is also a centre for the examinations of Sagar University since 1970.

Professional and Technical Institutions

The Technical Education Society of Damoh which collected donations worth rupees three lakhs from people, helped to usher in this institution in

Polytechnic, Damoh

January, 1965. Both the State and the Central Governments came forward to share the non-recurring capital expenditure in the ratio of 60:40. For the first five years, gross recurring expenditure was also to be shared by them in the same ratio. From 1970 onwards the State Government was to meet the entire expenditure of the College.

The Polytechnic has now its own spacious buildings worth about Rs. 7 lakhs; a well-equipped laboratory and a wide campus. Besides, its library has books worth Rs. 17,000. There is a hostel which can accommodate 48 scholars. At the time of its establishment in January 1965 the Polytechnic enrolled 50 students to the Diploma Course in Civil Engineering. Six months later 60 more students were admitted to the same course. By July 1966 the institution began to offer courses in Mechanical and Electrical branches too, enrolling 40 students in each of the three branches. Candidates seeking admission to the three-year diploma course offered by the Polytechnic must have passed the Higher Secondary School Certificate Examination.

In 1966-67 the Polytechnic had 14 members on its teaching staff and 4 others on the workshop establishment, besides a Principal. The Collector of Damoh is the *ex-officio* Chairman of the Governing Body of the institution. The other members of the body are nominated by the State and Central Governments, Madhya Pradesh Board of Technical Education and the All India Council of Technical Education. Besides these officials, some prominent citizens from the District are also represented in the Governing Body.

The following table shows the details of the institution from 1964-65 to 1970-71.

Table No. XV—12

Progress of Polytechnic Damoh (1964—1971)

Year	Faculty-wise strength of Students			No. of Teachers	No. of Books in the Library	Income (Rs.)	Expenditure (Rs.)
	Civil Engineering	Mechanical Engineering	Electrical Engineering				
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
1964-65	50	—	—	5	103	2,038	32,483
1965-66	103	—	—	11	624	8,103	5,87,435
1966-67	92	44	44	15	1,756	18,954	5,41,785
1967-68	112	54	52	30	2,222	20,792	5,35,921
1968-69	106	59	36	28	2,957	20,438	5,05,110
1969-70	86	67	33	28	3,045	17,564	3,77,622
1970-71	57	51	29	31	3,236	12,552	3,42,499

Source.—Principal, Polytechnic, Damoh.

Teacher's Training

There are two teacher's training institutions in the District, situated at Hatta and Damoh. The Government Basic Training Institute, Hatta, was established

Basic Training Institute, Hatta

in 1959 to train primary school teachers. On an average the institution has been admitting over 100 pupils every year. There were 125 students on its roll in 1962-63, 122 in 1964-65 and 106 in 1966-67. The institution which is headed by a Principal has four lecturers, three Craft Assistants, a Physical Training Instructor, a Table Master and a Music Teacher. There is a well-equipped library attached to the institution, as also a commodious hostel to accommodate all the trainees.

Besides imparting training to prospective teachers, the Basic Training Institute, Hatta, has been taking part in the ideal village and adult education programmes. As a part of the former scheme, the trainees visited various villages of the District to inculcate habits of cleanliness and sanitation among the people. The institution organised adult education classes at various centres in 1963.

Oriental Schools and Colleges

Oriental learning was eclipsed, if not ended, by the introduction of western education in India. Lack of patronage and thinning attendance at these schools were responsible for the decline and fall of oriental institutions. Many students preferred to go to the new schools started after the advent of the British, for the instruction imparted in oriental schools did not prepare them for the jobs they needed.

Sanskrit Schools

Prior to the introduction of western education, there was, at Damoh, an institution run by one Ramprasad where Sanskrit was taught free of charge. The institution has since been closed. Similarly, there were some private schools teaching Sanskrit at Damoh, Hatta, Patharia, Hindoria, Jabera, Sitanagar and Bandakpur. But these schools too were closed in course of time. In 1949 the management of the Hanuman Temple Committee, Damoh, started Shri Ramkumar Sanskrit Pathashala in the town. It is affiliated to the Bharatiya Vidya Bhavan, Bombay, and is aided by the Government of Madhya Pradesh.

Sanskrit is now being taught as a compulsory subject from class VI to VIII to all those students whose mother-tongue is Hindi. Other students offer their mother-tongue instead of Sanskrit with their subjects.

Education for the Handicapped

Orphanage, Damoh

The present Mission Higher Secondary School, Damoh, had its beginning during the famine of 1896, in the shape of an orphanage started by some missionary. The boys thus admitted to the orphanage were given some training in different vocations, namely, agriculture husbandry, carpentry, blacksmithy and tailoring. But later, it appears that, the orphanage was converted into a primary school which ultimately grew into the present Mission Higher Secondary School.

Presently there is no institution for deaf, dumb or blind, but there is an orphanage in Damoh, which was established in 1934 by some philanthropists of the place. The institution, which gets Government aid, rears and educates orphans for different vocations of life. The institution also helps in rescuing the deserted and the destitute.

Libraries

The District has five libraries, of which four are being run by the Janapada Sabha, Damoh, and one by the Municipal Council, Damoh. Of the libraries being managed by the Janapada Sabha, Damoh, two are located at Bandakpur. While one of these is a school library containing 186 books, the other is a circulating library with 818 books and is open to public. The third library at Patharia was established in 1958 by K.V. Phadke, a philanthropist interested in children's education. The library was first managed by a society. In 1963 the management of the library was taken over by the Janapada Sabha, Damoh, and was named as Saraswati Pustakalaya. The fourth library under the management of Damoh Janapada Sabha is the Public Library of Hindoria, which contains about 760 books.

The Ravindranath Tagore Library, Damoh, which is being run by the Damoh Municipal Council was established in 1948. It contains 1843 books. Besides, newspapers and periodicals are also kept in the reading-room attached to the library for the benefit of the public.

Adult Literacy and Social Education

The concept of adult education originated even during the British days, but the feeble efforts of theirs in this regard had little or no impact on Damoh District. After the advent of Independence, the ideology of adult education acquired new dimensions. The Social Education Scheme, as it was called, was introduced on 1st May, 1948. It included among other things, adult education and social education. The latter term envisaged the training of people to lead a productive civic life. The task of educating adults in Madhya Pradesh has been entrusted to the Directorate of Panchayats and Social Welfare. In Damoh District, the District Panchayat and Welfare Officer organises adult literacy classes and reading-rooms. Also, the various media of mass communication are utilised to achieve this gigantic project of Social Education. As a rule, primary school teachers are appointed as part-time teachers in the adult education centres.

During 1963-64 the Panchayats and Social Welfare Department was running 40 social education centres, and 410 out of the 510 pupils that took the examination in adult literacy tests came out successful. Earlier in 1959-60, out of the 534 pupils who appeared at the examination 311 were declared successful. In 1964-65 the number of social education centres increased to 42. In

that year 470 males and 50 females took the examination, out of whom 430 males and all the females passed.

Cultural, Literary and Scientific Societies

During the early part of this century there were two literary associations in the District located at Damoh and Hatta, the life-span of both extending to slightly over two decades. The first of these was the 'Kavi Samaj', Damoh, established in 1901 by Haji Ali Khan and Moolchand 'Vatsal' with a view to reforming society through literary works. Many prominent citizens of the town were the members of this 'arts for morality' movement. Prior to its establishment no literary or cultural society seems to have existed in the District.

Litrary Associations in Damoh

The other literary institution was established at Hatta in 1921 by Raghubardas Mahant. Many of its members were interested in academic pursuits. The institution, which flourished for about a quarter of a century, used to organise gatherings of poets and other cultural functions periodically.

No new literary institutions came into being for nearly two decades, at the end of which four literary institutions were established, almost in quick succession. The first to appear on the literary scene of the District was Zila Hindi Sahitya Samiti, which was established in 1950 with the efforts of Jagmohan Prasad Bajpai and a few other literary enthusiasts of Damoh. Bazme Ahsan which was established in 1960 was the result of the pioneering efforts of Ramanand 'Jor,' who is now its President. The other two literary forums, namely, Navodit and Srijan were founded within a period of one year. The former appeared on the literary horizon in 1963 with the inspiration of Dinkar Sonwalkar, while the latter was founded in 1964. prominent among the founders were Mahanand 'Adarsh' and Ramkumar 'Anuj. All these literary associations are engaged in arranging gatherings of poets and honouring the veteran litterateurs of the area. Lectures on literary topics, and such other cultural functions are also arranged by them. Situated in Damoh town, all these societies enjoy the patronage of the prominent men of the town. As for their Significant contribution, Navodit has published three volumes of collected poems, namely, *Navodit*, *Geet-Gandh* and *Panchjanya* in 1965, 1966 and 1972, respectively, while Srijan has brought out *Kavyanjali* and *Draupadi-Kuntal*, which are collections of poems. The *Navodit* was published in memory of Pandit Jawaharlal Nehru in 1964.

In order to collect the epigraphical relics and bring to light the cultural heritage of the past in the area, an archaeological association was formed in Damoh in 1959-60 under the presidentship of the Collector. It appears that the association is defunct now.

District Archaeological Association, Damoh

Literary Traditions

Men of Letters

Predominantly a Bundeli tract, Damoh has nursed a number of reputed litterateurs during the past. The important among them was Madhav Rao Sapre who was born in Patharia, 17 miles to the North west of Damoh in Damoh Tahsil. Born in a humble family in 1871, he had his early education in Bilaspur, Raipur and then at Gwalior and Nagpur. Devoted to the cause of Hindi, he started publishing *Chhattisgarh-Mitra*, a monthly from Pendra, a place in Bilaspur district. Later he edited *Hind-Kesri* in 1907. His lucid translation of *Dasbodoh* and *Geeta-Rahasya* of Lokmanya Tilak into Hindi earned for him a permanent place in Hindi literature. His association with *Karmveer* a nationalist weekly of note, and Sharda Bhavan library at Jabalpur gradually shifted his centre of activity from Raipur to Jabalpur. His services to the cause of Hindi language and literature as an essayist were recognised in 1920, when in the 15th session of Bharatiya Hindi Sahitya Sammelan at Dehradun, he was elected its President.[1] His essays used to be published in *Saraswati*, *Abhyudaya*, *Maryada*, etc. His other notable translation works were *Bharatiya Yuddha* of Damodar Gopal Limaya, *Shalopayogi Bharatwarsha* of Rao Sahib Govind Sakharam Sardesai, *Ram Krishna Vaksudha*, *Atma Vidya* of Hari Ganesh Godbole, *Bharatwarsh-ki-Sahakari Naukariyan* of Hridaya Nath Kunzuru, *Mahabharata Mimansa* of Chintamani Vinayak Vaidya and *Datta-Bhargava Samvada* of Balkrishna Bhau Joshi[2] Madhava Rao Sapre died on 23rd August, 1922.

Haji Ali Khan, one of the founders of Kavi-Samaj, was another prominent man of letters in the District. Born in 1856, Haji Ali Khan commenced his literary career from 1881, and a number of literary plays, poems, etc., were written by him till 1921 when he died at the age of 65 years. *Haji Drishtant-mala Khal-dal-ganjan*, *Anjamvadi*, *Haji-Hajara*, *Ved-Paropkarak*, etc., were some of his important works. Hariram Trivedi, a member of this forum, was a poet and his poems were published in leading journals of the period. He also wrote many books, plays. etc. Important among them are *Hardaul*, *Kausa-Sabha*, *Hariram-Sangrah*, etc. He died in 1945, and left behind an incomplete poetical work on Krishna. Banwari Lal Guru 'Beni', Jhunnilal Verma, Muhammad Vazir Khan and Raghubar Prasad were other budding writers associated with this forum, and later contributed much to the literary sphere in Damoh. Banwarilal Guru's work consists of *Ganga-Shodshi*, *Chhatrasal-Vijaya*, *Ganesh-Dashak*, *Hanuman-Vijaya* and *Mera-Parichaya*, which is a philosophical work. Jhunnilal Verma, who is now associated with Hindi Sahitya Samiti, Damoh, became famous for his book *Bharat Darshan*. Muhammd Vazir Khan, who was born in 1932, wrote *Basant Bahar*, *Sadachar Darpan*, etc.

During the 'twenties as the activities of Kavi-Samaj suffered a set back owing chiefly to the death of Hari Ali, the local literary talents rallied round

1. *Ravishankar Abhinandan Granth*, p. 47.
2. Govind Rao Hardikar, *Madhava Rao Sapre*, pp. 210-211.

another forum Sahitya Sanstha, Hatta, which was established with the help of Raghubardas Mahanat. His composition on religious themes relating to Rama and Krishna won him a place in important literary periodicals of the time. His death in 1943 affected adversely the activities of the forum. His book *Gau-Sundri* won him fame. Thakur Ratan Singh of Hatta, who was also Secretary of Sahitya Sanstha, Hatta, wrote a commentary on Tulsi's *Ramayana*. He died in 1953.

Also associated with the above literary bodies was Lakshmi Prasad Mistri 'Rama' who was born in 1886 at Hatta. He began writing from 1910 on religious and patriotic themes and his poems won him a place of repute in the literary periodicals of his time. He wrote *Choudha-ratan*, *Kalgi*, *Gandhi-Shradhanjali*, etc. The ageing litterateur was honoured recently along with Banwarilal Guru 'Beni', Jhunnilal Verma, Munnalal 'Chitra' and Ganesh Prasad Gour when the three literary forums of the District arranged a public function at which they were presented with shawls in recognition of their services to Hindi literature.

Battu Swami composed a book of verses entitled *Hatta Mahatma* which was in the form of *dohas* and *chaupais*. Bharadwaj 'Ksheme' composed a number of poems. Atmaram Divkar wrote a number of novels, namely, *Trilok Sundari*, *Adarsh Mitra*, *Pani-ka-Bulbula*, *Sneh-Lata*, etc. Ram Lal's poems and articles on literary criticism were widely published. Ram Sahai 'Rama Bandhu' first started poetry in 1916. His works include *Mitra-Milap*, *Mohan Rani*, *Krishna Gitanjali*, etc.

Other writers in the District, who have served the cause of Hindi literature, are Mahadev Prasad and Ram Prasad (who was known for his sculpture also). Gaya Prasad Pande has written books on astrology, marrirge conventions and religion. The poems of Babu Narayan Sing 'Ramsut' were publised in *Bal Vinod* of Lucknow and *Su-kavi* of Kanpur. He has also written *Usha-Natak*. which remains unpublished.

CHAPTER XVI

MEDICAL AND PUBLIC HEALTH SERVICES

Survey of Medical Facilities

As elsewhere in the State, *Ayurveda* was the oldest system of medicine prevalent in Damoh. However, the then *Vaidyas* had no specific code of treatment and they mostly depended upon what little knowledge they could gather from their ancestors. The *Bhasmas* and *Rasa* they prepared or extracted from medicinal herbs and shrubs were efficacious and cheap. And by virtue of this, the *ayurvedic* medicines were very popular in those days. Quacks and faith-healers who exploited the superstitions prevalent among people also enjoyed the confidence of a section of the local population.

Unani

Another system of medicine which got an equally sound footing in later years was the *Unani*. The Mughal rule in this area was chiefly responsible for its coming into vogue. Here also no definite code of treatment existed. The *Hakims*, like their counterparts, the *Vaidyas*, administered powerful medicines, but confined themselves mostly to the urban areas.

Western Medicines

With the advent of British rule in 1818, the Western or allopathic system of medicine made its appearance. The efforts made by the British authorities to popularise the Western medicines considerably checked the popularity of indigenous drugs. However, in spite of this temporary set-back, they retained their place in the field of medicine in later years. Though Western medicines were concomitant with the British rule, authentic references to their application through organized agencies were available only since the formation of Central Provinces in 1861.

Charitable Dispensaries

The first step taken in this direction was the opening of Charitable Dispensaries at district headquarters and important towns. In 1862-63 a Dispensary was opened at Damoh. The management of the dispensary was entrusted to a Dispensary Committee which consisted of Civil Officers of the District and prominent men of the locality. Medicines and medical treatment were rendered gratuitously. Facilities for indoor treatment were not available initially. However, very

serious cases were accommodated within the dispensary building. The cost of maintenance of the dispensary was partly met from private subscriptions and partly from the State revenue. The officer who inspected the jails was also responsible for the inspection of this dispensary.

The dispensary became popular in due course despite initial difficulties. The dearth of trained local doctors seriously affected the functioning of the dispensary, and it was felt that "local men are more likely to win the confidence of the people than foreigners, who, moreover, look upon this part of India with some disfavour. The scale of salaries allowed to Native Doctors is comparatively small. It might, perhaps, suffice for a native practising near his home; but it fails to satisfy people of other Provinces, and to retain their services at a distance from their own country".[1]

Expenditure

The general principle for meeting the expenditure on dispensaries from 1866-67 onwards was that, charges such as Surgeon's allowance, Indian Doctor's salary, and the like, were to be defrayed from the general revenues, while all other expense on account of Dressers, Compounders, hospital servants, diet of patients, Indian drugs and the like were to be borne by local contributions. The Civil Surgeon of the District visited and inspected the dispensaries from time to time.

Charitable dispensaries were started in quick succession in subsequent years and by 1876-77 Damoh district had five such institutions, namely, Damoh Main, Damoh Town, Hatta, Jabera and Patharia, affording medical relief on an average to 182 persons daily. Patients were provided medicine, food, clothing and bedding gratis.

Management

On the 1st of April 1885 the management of the dispensaries was transferred to the Local Bodies which had jurisdiction over those areas. It was impressed upon the municipalities that under Act XI of 1873 they were principally responsible for providing educational and dispensary establishments. Consequently, the receipts and charges of dispensaries situated within the areas subject to the control of District Councils were transferred from the Dispensary Fund to the District Fund. For those dispensaries situated within the limits of municipal towns receipts and charges thereof were transferred from Dispensary Fund to the Municipal Fund.

Number of Hospitals and Dispensaries

According to the earlier Gazetteer of the District (1906) there were five dispensaries, a main dispensary at Damoh and branch dispensaries at Hatta, Jabera, Patharia and Tejgarh, the last one having been opened in 1902. In addition, Damoh had a Police Hospital and two private dispensaries of which one was maintained by the Mission of the Disciples of Christ. There was also a hospital for females supported by the Mission. The Damoh, Hatta, Jabera

1. C.P. Administration Report, 1866-67, p. 85.

and Patharia dispensaries provided accommodation for 20, 8, 6 and 2 patients, respectively. The average annual income of the dispensaries amounted to Rs. 5,700 to which Government contributed Rs. 2,700, Local funds Rs. 1,800 and subscriptions Rs. 1,200.

Reforms

Certain important events during the second decade of the present century included the establishment of the Central Provinces Medical Examination Board sometime between 1916 and 1919, and the enactment of the Central Provinces Medical Registration Act in 1916. During the period between 1919 and 1922, rules introducing a system of charging a small fee (sanctioned by the Local Government in 1917) of one anna per day or six rupees per annum as cost of medicines from well-to-do patients were strictly enforced. During the triennium period ending December, 1928, the Government also decided to provide a Lady Doctor at one town in every district.

Supervision

As mentioned earlier, the general supervision and control of the dispensaries in the District rested with the Civil Surgeon, and he continues to be the chief district level officer. The Civil Surgeon generally was a Commissioned Officer of the Indian Medical Service. He also functioned as an adviser to the Deputy Commissioner in medical and public health matters.

General Health

In respect of general health conditions in the District during the last century, there was an outbreak of cholera in 1879-80 when 28 deaths had occurred. However, earlier in 1875-76 when practically all districts in the province were affected by cholera epidemic, Damoh District remained unaffected. Frequency in the outbreak of this epidemic was high in the eighties of last century. The years 1885-86, 1887-88, 1889, 1890 and 1891-92 had recorded deaths on account of cholera numbering 373; 1,064; 1,386; 559 and 1,595, respectively. The highest number of deaths due to cholera was 3,018 in 1896 and 2,287 in 1897. It is also worth noting that these were the two years during which the highest number of deaths had occurred on account of fevers—malarial and others. The number of deaths recorded under fevers was 18,921 in 1896 and 12,320 in 1897. As compared to the figures of deaths due to cholera, mortality due to fevers was nearly six times greater. While cholera epidemic occurred giving gaps of a year or two, fevers appear to have struck a permanent footing in the District, and during the decade 1891 to 1900 the lowest number of deaths due to fevers was 5,582 in 1899. Visitations of smallpox were also frequent. Starting with a virulent attack in 1874-75 it revisited the District, in a serious form, in 1879-80, 1889, 1893, 1894 and 1895. In 1879-80 there were as many as 801 deaths. However, frequency of smallpox in a virulent form was effectively checked through vaccination. The other diseases prevalent in the District were bowel complaints, and diseases of the eye and skin.

The earlier District Gazetteer (1906) reports that vaccination was compulsory only in the municipal town of Damoh, but the vaccination staff used to cover the whole District in the open season. The proportion of successful vaccinations per mille of population was reported to have varied from 12 in 1896-97 to 35 in 1902-03. In 1903-04 it was 36 per mille. The annual cost of the operations was estimated at Rs. 1,500.

In respect of sanitation the Village Sanitation Act, 1889 was initially applied to Hatta in 1901. The expenditure on village sanitation for the period 1892 to 1902 amounted to Rs. 5000. The work undertaken included the construction of five wells, repairing of seven, and alterations, additions and reconstruction of ten step-wells.

Vital Statistics

Early attempts

A systematic registration of births and deaths in the Central provinces with certain amount of success could be achieved only after a period of experimentation. Though efforts were afoot in this direction ever since the formation of the Central provinces, it was only towards the close of 1866-67 that arrangements in this regard were complete. While the Municipal police were asked to collect such statistics in the urban areas, in the rural tracts the District police and *putwarees* (village accountants) were responsible for this work. But, such an arrangement could effect only partial registration, as the work in rural areas lacked proper supervision resulting in distortion of the statistics.

Mode of Collection

A new set of registration forms were issued by the Government of India in 1870 and the collection of vital statistics was extended throughout the Province. The agency that collected and consolidated these statistics was the police. The registers were maintained at the Police Stations. The figures were supplied to the Police by village *Kotwars* who periodically visited the nearest station and reported all births and deaths that occurred in his village since his last visit. This arrangement was not satisfactory, because the *Kotwar* reported twice or once in a week provided the police station was near, but much less frequently when it was far off. The possibility of inaccuracies and omissions was also there as the reporter depended much on his memory. While some improvement in this system could be brought out in respect of rural areas by issuing proper instructions and providing facilities for quick reporting. no improvement could be expected in the urban areas where the householder himself was made responsible for reporting vital occurrences.

After a further period of experimentation a new system of registering vital statistics was introduced from 1st January, 1920. The new system envisaged

Revised system of Registration

the publication of weekly returns by towns showing deaths and their causes separately, including infant mortality. Deaths under one year were subdivided into (1) upto one week (2) between one week and one month (3) from one month to six months and (4) from seven to twelve months. This facilitated speedy reporting and helped elimination of inaccuracies to a considerable extent. In respect of rural areas the *Kotwars* and *Patels* continued to report vital occurrences to the nearest police station. The railway authorities were to report such events occurring within the railway limits. The registers were subject to periodical inspection by revenue, medical and police officers, and by the vaccination staff.

Present arrangement

Under the present arrangements the Municipal Committees record births and deaths in respect of urban areas and submit a statement to the Civil Surgeon of their District. The vital events are also compiled and transmitted to the Civil Surgeon through the police stations. As regards rural areas the *Kotwars* are still responsible for this work of reporting. The Civil Surgeon, in his turn, compiles separate figures for urban and rural areas on the basis of figures thus received and passes on the same to the Director of Health Services.

Births, Deaths and their rates

Taking the birth and death rates per mille of population, during the decade 1891 to 1900, the highest birth-rate in the District was 48.63 in 1899, while lowest was 24.14 in 1895. As against this, the highest death-rate was 94.77 in 1896 followed by 75.82 in 1897 while the lowest death-rate was 28.19 in 1899. Though high death-rates in 1896 and 1897 were due to cholera and fevers raging in the District in those years, yet comparing birth and death-rates year after year, death-rate was found to be exceeding birth-rate during the last decade of the bygone century.

The twentieth century begins for the District with the lowest recorded death-rate of 25.95 per mille in 1901. In none of the subsequent years upto the forties of the century so low a death-rate was recorded for the District. The highest death-rate during the decade 1901-1910 was 52.49 in 1906. The lowest birth-rate during this decade was 33.49 in 1901. This means the lowest birth and death-rates happened to be in the same year. The highest birth-rate during the decade was 65.41 in 1908. The decade 1901-1910 was generally one of lower death-rate and higher birth-rate in contrast with the previous decade in which death-rate was generally higher than birth-rate. The highest death-rate ever recorded was in 1918, being 159.11 per mille. During the decade 1911-1920 the lowest death-rate was 39.49 in 1917. As against this the lowest birth-rate was 32.87 in 1912 and highest birth-rate 57.03 in 1914. In six out of ten years of this decade the death-rate happened to be lower than birth-rate. In general, therefore, taking the period 1891 to 1920 it may be said that the trend of low death-rate as compared to birth-rate was set in from the beginning of the

present century. This may be attributed to the increasing attention that was being given towards the improvement of medical and public health measures. During the decade 1921-1930 the birth-rate in the District was 45 and death-rate 35. From 1932 onwards upto 1956, Damoh District lost its identity as a separate administrative unit. Hence taking the decennial birth and death-rates for Sagar District, of which Damoh formed a part, as applicable to Damoh District, the birth and death-rates were 45.1 and 37.8, respectively, in the decade 1931-1940. The decade 1941-50 was marked by considerable decline in birth as well as death-rates. Birth-rate declined from 45.1 to 35.9 while decline in the death-rate was from 37.8 to 30.7. In the decade 1951-60 there was a further decline in the birth as well as death-rates, the birth-rate being 34.85 and death-rate 21.18.

The data regarding births and deaths along with rates thereof from 1961 to 1970 were as under.

Table No. XVI—1

Births, Deaths and their rates

Year	Births (Total)	Birth-rate per thousand population	Deaths (Total)	Death-rate per thousand population
1961	14,661	31.41	7,957	17.21
1962	14,566	33.25	7,718	17.65
1963	16,651	37.48	13,193	30.09
1964	16,590	31.03	7,355	16.78
1965	17,006	38.91	7,573	17.27
1966	18,658	37.86	7,042	14.29
1967	17,480	34.63	8,251	16.35
1968	17,882	34.59	7,780	15.05
1969	18,247	34.18	7,712	14.44
1970	16.072	34.76	7,267	13.29

Source.—Civil Surgeon, Damoh.

The figures given above indicate a definite decline in death-rate but no clear trend in birth-rate is observable.

Causes of Mortality

Cholera, smallpox, plague, fever, tuberculosis and bowel complaints are generally the causes of mortality in the District. Cholera has been visiting the District in an epidemic form in the past. However, the District was almost free from its attack in recent years. Since 1948 there was no incidence of plague in the District. Inspite of the comparatively frequent outbreak of smallpox, mortality had not been high. Mortality from bowel complaints too had been slight. The main cause of mortality has always been fever. Statistics indicate that even in recent years fever wrought much thinning of the popula-

tion in the District. Tuberculosis is yet another disease that has caused a considerable number of deaths in recent years. Mortality on account of different diseases in recent years was as shown in the table given below.

Table No. XVI—2

Causes of Mortality

Year	Smallpox	Fever	Dysentry	Tuberculosis	Delivery	Other Causes
1961	..	1,845	..	75	..	6,609
1962	157	2,212	8	250	3	5,191
1963	106	1,136	16	350	7	11,595
1964	..	4,040	6	237	25	2,972
1965	..	3,696	29	233	18	3 615
1966	4	13	33	7	—	—
1967	10	9	19	6	..	.
1968	..	1	14	3	8	..
1969	..	..	21	..	10	..
1970	:	..	513	294	518	..
1971	..	..	1,445	962	928	..

Source.—Civil Surgeon, Damoh.

Infant Mortality

Prematurity, malnutrition, (chiefly owing to want of mother's milk) diarrhoea, respiratory troubles, smallpox and fevers are the main causes of infant mortality. Of these smallpox was the highest single cause of infant mortality in the District. The extension of medical facilities to the interior areas of the District through primary health centres and their sub-centres, arrangements for prenatal and post-natal care of mothers, and provision for the supply of milk powder to underfed infants and their mothers have considerably brought down the incidence of infant mortality in recent years. The annual rate of infant mortality per 1,000 live-births for the period 1966 to 1970 was 123.27, 151.14, 113.47, 109.94 and 99.21, respectively.

Diseases Common to the District

As discussed earlier, cholera, plague, smallpox, malaria, tuberculosis, bowel complaints, eye diseases, etc., are the main diseases that have been affecting the general health conditions in the District with varying intensities not only in the past but in the present as well. Details regarding the incidence of these diseases in the past have been given in the foregoing pages. During the present century also some of these diseases took epidemic form, especially in the first two or three decades, but have almost spent their vigour in recent years.

Cholera

In 1900 as many as 149 deaths were recorded following an outbreak of Cholera in the District. After a gap of five years it revisited the District in 1906 claiming 100 lives followed by 115 deaths in the subsequent year. Thereafter, it appeared practically every year till 1940 occasionally taking heavy toll. In 1913, 1914, 1919, 1921 and 1926 it was responsible for 734; 1,399 (the highest during this period), 592, 1,245 and 604 deaths, respectively. The year 1941 and 1945 also witnessed severe outbreaks of cholera, the number of recorded deaths being 693 and 840, respectively. The incidence of cholera was not so high in the years 1951, 1958 and 1960. The number of deaths in these years was 91,1 and 8, respectively.

Anti-Cholera Measures

These measures include both preventive and curative. Water being one of the main sources of infection, disinfection of the sources of water-supply by Potassium permanganate is one of the preventive measures. Annual Health Weeks are also observed in the month of April in the District when mass inoculation campaign is undertaken. At the time of a serious outbreak of cholera medical and public health staff take up mass inoculation campaign, health education propaganda and distribution of anti-cholera medicines. Disinfection of vomits, dejecta and infected clothes is undertaken with the help of local authorities and municipalities. Emergency Cholera Regulations are also enforced whenever the situation so warrants. The preventive measures are extended to adjacent villages in order to arrest its spread-over. Arrangements are also made for the treatment of infectious cases at the Isolation Wards of hospitals or by constructing temporary hutments for the purpose.

Plague

This scourge had its first visitation in the District in 1902, when two deaths were recorded. But in the very next year, appearing in an epidemic form, it claimed 208 lives. The years 1904, 1906 and 1907 recorded only mild attacks. However, in 1911 and 1912, in a virulent attack the loss of lives was substantial, i.e., 141 and 522, respectively. This was followed by a few severe, but intermittent attacks in 1915, 1917, 1918, and 1920. Deaths in these years were: 309, 256, 401 and 731; respectively. In subsequent years the incidence of plague was sporadic, but it took an epidemic form in 1948 causing 856 deaths. The District, however, has been reported to be free from this scourge since then.

The anti-plague measures include inoculation, isolation, disinfection and rat destruction. Cynogassing of rat burrows is also resorted to. Emergency plague Regulations, health education lectures and distribution of anti-plague drugs are other measures undertaken during an outbreak of the epidemic.

Smallpox

This frightful disease has been a frequent visitor to the District, each time taking away a sizable number of lives. The average number of deaths from smallpox during the first decade of the present century was 278, but in its virulent form in the years 1901, 1902 and 1906 the loss of life was much higher, being 682, 532 and 1,121 respectively. During the subsequent decades, 1911-20 and 1921-30, the average mortality from this disease was 41.7 and 48.5, much lower compared to 278 of the first decade. As against this, the decades that followed recorded an increase in the mortality rate, the average for the decades 1931-1940 and 1941-50 being 71 and 169, respectively. The last severe outbreak of smallpox was in 1949 when there were 1,038 deaths. Sporadic incidence of smallpox in subsequent years was only of a mild form comparatively.

Vaccination

Vaccination is supposed to be the only effective preventive measure to stamp out this disease. The implementation of vaccination measures in the Central Provinces dates back to the year 1862 when Vaccinators were engaged for the first time at various places. However, a systematic vaccination work through a Vaccination Department consisting of a Superintendent (a medical officer) and a strong staff of Vaccinators could be effected only since 1863-64. Nagpur and Chhindwara were the two places initially chosen to be the centres of activities in this regard. As far as Damoh District is concerned, it is difficult to say, as to when vaccination was originally extended to this area. In 1867 the District Officers were directed to associate the municipalities also in the cause of vaccination. The Establishment of Vaccination was subsequently placed under the Sanitary Commissioner who was also responsible for the compilation of returns thereof. Under this Scheme of Vaccination the area of operation was divided into different Vaccination Circles, each circle having one or more vaccinators as the case may be. At district level the Civil Surgeon was to supervise the work. The expenditure incurred was met from the provincial revenues. Thus, in 1874-75, it was reported that Damoh District had one local Superintendent and four Vaccinators engaged in this work, and this team vaccinated in all 1,344 persons that year.

In 1890 animal lymph was substituted for that obtained from human beings; and in 1895-96 the Civil Surgeons were directed to produce the requisite quantum of calf lymph at their respective headquarters. With the establishment of a Central Lymph Depot at Nagpur in 1908-09, the supply of lymph to the whole Province could be made from Nagpur.

Compulsory Vaccination

The Vaccination Act, 1880 was extended to the towns of Damoh and Hatta on 12th December, 1893 and 15th February, 1893, respectively In 1931 vaccination was compulsory only in the municipal areas. But under the Central Provinces Vaccination Law Amendment Act 1932 (VI of 1932), vaccination could be made compulsory in selected rural areas as well. With the enactment of the Local

Government Act, 1948 which envisaged the constitution of Janapad Sabhas, the immediate supervision and control over vaccination staff was transferred to these Sabhas. The Secretary of the Standing Committee was to act as Superintendent in place of the Civil Surgeon. Now intensive vaccination work is being done in every part of the District through the National Smallpox Eradication Programme.

The National Smallpox Eradication team started vaccination work in the District on 20th November, 1962, and about 97.4 per cent of the population has been vaccinated against smallpox. The epidemic has been almost under control since then but in 1966 there was an outbreak in Jabera Block. However, the preventive measures taken in time prevented the disease from assuming the form of an epidemic.

The responsibility of vaccinating every child born in a city or village now rests with the Local Bodies concerned. The Local Bodies, Municipalities and Janapada Sabhas maintain a regular staff of vaccinators who visit the houses in their respective areas of jurisdiction and vaccinate every new born child within a period of six months since birth. In all 11 vaccinators were employed by the Local Bodies—6 by Janapada Sabha, Damoh, 4 by Janapada Sabha, Hatta, and one by the Municipal Committee, Hatta. The *Vaidya* and Compounder of the *Ayurvedic* dispensary run by the Municipal Committee, Damoh, and the *Vaidya* and Homoeopathic Assistant of the Janapada Sabha, Damoh are also trained in vaccination work. They also carry on vaccination and inoculation work along with other staff. The vaccination work in the District in general is supervised by the Civil Surgeon who is also the District Health Officer. Vaccination Week is also held annually in the month of November.

Details of vaccination work done in the District during 1960-71 are shown below:—

Table No. XVI-3

Primary and Revaccination

Year	No. of Primary Vaccinations	No. of Revaccinations
1960	19,809	15,521
1961	15,710	11,654
1962	29,889	64,626
1963	72,061	2,26,811
1964	27,519	79,393
1965	17,175	40,037
1966	22,699	81,611
1967	31,255	1,00,888
1968	19,958	73,501
1969	21,065	23,316
1970	31,099	17,608
1971	29,913	22,004

Source:—Civil Surgeon, Damoh.

Malaria

Efforts to assess the incidence of Malaria in the District appear to have been made only in the present century. In 1910 a survey was conducted by Major W.D. Kenrick of the Indian Medical Service to examine the incidence of malaria in the Central Provinces and Berar, so that the recommendations and resolutions of the Conference of Malaria held at Simla in October, 1909 could be suitably implemented. The Survey was at the instance of the Government of Central Provinces and Berar in response to a directive from the Government of India. It was observed that Hardapur, Burwan and Singpur near Damoh were endemic to malaria with spleen rates varying from 33 to 56 per cent; Jhina had a spleen rate of 58 per cent; and Singrampur, Bhinane and Khamdi had 18, 16 and 45 per cent, respectively. In other words, the whole of the southern half of the District was more or less highly endemic. However, the endemic rate never reached hyperendemic proportions. Damoh town itself was found to be not very malarious, the spleen rate being only 10 per cent. The northern half of the District was not altogether malarious. But the barren unproductive northern hill tract, mostly containing scrub jungle and stony flat-topped hills, was moderately too highly endemic. The spleen rates of Bakani, Dograpura, Kejra and Fatehpur in this area were 40, 22, 70 and 20 per cent, respectively. A survey of this type has not been conducted in recent years. However, area comprising the forest belt, especially in the north of the District, is more susceptible to malaria. The anti-malaria activities which got momentum recently checked its incidence to a considerable extent.

Anti-Malaria Measures

The early remedial measures included the distribution of quinine and other anti-malaria drugs free of cost in the poorer tracts and at reasonable rates elsewhere. Anti-malaria activities in the District in an organised manner are of recent origin. Under the National Malaria Eradication Programme an Anti-Malaria Unit comprising Sagar and Damoh districts was established in April, 1959 with headquarters at Sagar. The whole area was divided into four sub-units, namely, Sagar, Khurai, Damoh and Tendukheda. Each unit is under the charge of a Senior Malaria Inspector. They are under the supervision and control of the Malaria Officer in charge of National Malaria Eradication Programme Unit at Sagar. Each village in this area was subjected to two rounds of D.D.T. spraying within a period of three years since the inception of this Unit. This resulted in the reduction of new malaria cases considerably.

Surveillance Operations

In 1960 the surveillance operations were launched in the District. For surveillance operations the area of the Unit was divided into different sectors, each under a Surveillance Inspector. Each sector was further divided into a number of sections having approximately 10,000 population each. Each section was to be looked after by a Surveillance Worker.

The surveillance operations are of two kinds, active and passive. Under the active surveillance, the specially appointed staff of the Malaria Eradication Programme would visit every house at periodical intervals, enquire about cases of fever, take blood smears and get them examined under the microscope. If the results are found positive for malaria the staff would supply a complete course of anti-malaria drugs to cure the disease. The Scheme needs a large staff for a minimum period of three years. Under the passive surveillance the Government and private agencies connected with medical and public health and the voluntary social welfare organisation report suspected cases of malaria that come to their notice to the authorities. Here also blood smears are collected and examined, and treatment prescribed. The active surveillance is chiefly meant for the rural areas, whereas passive surveillance is best suited to the urban areas. There is a well-equipped Laboratory at the Unit headquarters, Sagar. The blood smears collected under active and passive surveillance operations are examined here. The Table given below indicates the work done by National Malaria Eradication Programme Unit under surveillance operations and spraying.

Table No. XVI-4

DDT Spraying

Year	No. of Villages Sprayed	
	First Round	Second Round
(1)	(2)	(3)
1959-60	1,112	1,112
1960-61	1,112	1,112
1961-62	1,112	1,112
1962-63	Spraying withdrawn	
1963-64	-do	
1964-65	441	441
1965-66	428	428
1966	NA	NA
1967	NA	NA
1968	1099+2 Towns	—
1969	1107+2 Towns	1085+1 Town
1970	1,097	—
1971	1,098	—

The work done under surveillance operations, active and passive, during the period 1960-1965 may be seen from the Table given in Appendix. Figures in this regard for recent years are given below.

Table No. XVI-5

Surveillance Operations

Year	No. of fever Cases detected	No. of Blood Smear Collected	No. found positive
1966	55,944	60,525	2,727
1967	51,351	55,152	2,532
1968	39,062	39,395	905
1969	35,124	36,779	322
1970	1,09,916	1,10,590	5,961
1971	1,290,61	1,37,850	10,589

Source,—Malaria Unit Officer, I/C NMEP Unit, Sagar, M.P.

In January, 1962 an Independent Appraisal Team visited the Unit and recommended for the withdrawal of spraying operations, for the occurrence of malaria was found to be negligible. Accordingly, the Unit entered its consolidation phase in 1962. However, focal outbreaks of malaria were recorded in the forest belt of Damoh, especially the north forest belt, from October, 1963 to December, 1963. This area was, therefore, brought under regular D.D.T. spray as a precautionary measure.

Tuberculosis

The District is reported to have had a high incidence of pulmonary tuberculosis. The disease occasionally contributes a sizable number to the total number of deaths in the District. The mortality caused by tuberculosis in recent years has already been tabulated earlier. The District is yet to have a T.B. Clinic or any other institution of its kind. However, the establishment of a 20 bedded T.B. Clinic was being contemplated. The medical institutions in the District, however, offer medical aid to less serious cases and recommend admission for cases deserving hospitalization to any Sanatorium outside the District.

The diseases discussed so far are those chiefly responsible for thinning the population of the District. A host of other diseases are also found to be afflicting the population. They are leprosy, influenza, typhoid, guinea-worm, whooping cough, measles, skin diseases, diseases of the bone and connective tissues, anaemia, asthma, bronchitis, pleurisy, teeth and gum troubles, relapsing fever, beri-beri, etc. Some of them are being discussed below.

Leprosy

Though leprosy is found to occur in the District, its incidence is reported to be very low. As such, there is no separate establishment for the treatment of leprosy. The Main Hospital at Damoh distributes medicine to patients of leprosy at the out-patient department once in a week. However, there is no arrangement for indoor treatment. Sulphon tablets are also supplied at the primary health centres. About 60 leprosy cases were treated annually.

Influenza

The incidence of influenza is supposed to be high in the District, sometimes assuming the form of an epidemic. In 1957 there was a serious outbreak of influenza, its intensity being very high in June, July and August that year. In all, there were 2,669 seizures and one death. Effective preventive measures including the closure of public institutions and enforcement of Emergency Influenza Regulations considerably checked its recurrence, and by September 1957 it was completely checked. Only sporadic incidence of influenza was reported thereafter.

Guinea Worm

The incidence of guinea-worm was high in the District in the past. This was chiefly owing to the insanitary conditions that prevailed then. However, improvements effected in sanitation in recent years, especially in the rural areas, by constructing new step-wells and disinfecting the source of water-supply checked its incidence to a great extent.

Eye Diseases

Cataract and trachoma are the two eye diseases generally found in the District. The percentage of incidence of trachoma is supposed to be high—a little more than 53 per cent. There are no special facilities available in the District for the treatment of these diseases. Serious cases are, however, referred to the Medical College Hospital, Jabalpur, which is the nearest institution.

In view of the increasing number of eye-patients the State Government organised an eye-camp at Hatta in 1959 for a period of ten days from 12th to 21st January, 1959, during which period as many as 1,419 patients were examined and 277 operations performed. In the subsequent year, i.e., 1960, another camp was organized at Damoh by the Jiwan Tara, a missionary orgnization. Here also 1,811 patients were examined and 602 operations performed.

Public Hospitals and Dispensaries

Organization of the Medical and Public Health Departments

As stated earlier the Civil Surgeon is the head of the medical department at District level. He exercises supervisory and administrative control over all Government medical institutions and only supervisory control on Janapada Ayurvedic and Homoeopathic dispensaries in the District. During the period 1932 to 1956 when Damoh District remained grafted to Sagar, the medical institutions located in Damoh were under the jurisdiction of the Civil Surgeon of Sagar. In 1956 the post of a Civil Surgeon exclusively for Damoh, was again created. In 1963 the post of an Additional Civil Surgeon was also created. The Additional Civil Surgeon assists the Civil Surgeon in all administrative matters. The Civil Surgeon is responsible for the working of this office to the

Director of Health Services, Bhopal. The supervision of primary health centres in Block areas is primarily the responsibility of the Additional Civil Surgeon. The Civil Surgeon and Additional Civil Surgeon also act as Health Officers of the District, on the public health side. Similarly, the Medical officers in charge of the primary health centres are also health officers for their respective areas of jurisdiction. The subordinate staff of the Public Health Department, namely, the Health Visitors, Sanitary Inspectors and others also assist the Additional Civil Surgeon in matters connected with public health and hygiene.

Hospitals and Dispensaries

It was observed earlier that during the early years of the present century there were five dispensaries at Damoh (Main), Hatta, Jabera, Patharia and Tejgarh (all branch dispensaries), in addition to the Police Hospital at Damoh. But in 1904 the dispensary at Tejgarh was closed, and another dispensary was opened at Patera in 1905. Subsequently, a dispensary was also established at Tendukhera. Yet another dispensary was established in the District in 1957 at Batiagarh. In the meantime, the main dispensary at Damoh increased in its importance and became a headquarters hospital. This hospital was provincialized in April, 1958.

Provincialisation of Hospitals and Dispensaries

The hospital and dispensaries in the initial stage were managed by either Local Bodies or private agencies. At the time of reorganization of the State, it was observed that in the other integrating units (other than Mahakoshal region), the medical institutions were managed from the State funds. In order, therefore, to maintain uniformity it was decided in 1958 that all the remaining medical institutions should also be provincialised. Accordingly, the remaining dispensaries in the District were also provincialised in August, 1958. These dispensaries were also upgraded into primary health centres. The dispensaries at Patharia, Batiagarh, Jabera, Hatta and Tendukheda were the first to be upgraded.

The District, at present, has two hospitals, namely, P.S. Dhagat Memorial Hospital and Police Hospital, and Seven primary health centres.

The P.S. Dhagat Memoral Hospital

The Damoh Main Dispensary which later became a small hospital with an Assistant Surgeon, a Medical Officer and a skeleton staff, was found to be insufficient to meet the growing medical needs of the local population in the late 1940's. Realising this, a prominent citizen and a social worker of the locality, the late Prem Shanker Dhagat initiated a collection drive to raise sufficient funds for the construction of a bigger hospital. This drive started in 1946 and ended in the collection of an amount of Rs. 50,000 by 1951, substantial contributions being made by many benevolent citizens. The proposal for the renovation of the old hospital building received active consideration by

the Government in 1951. The Government also sanctioned an equal amount for the up-keep of this institution. Subsequently, a new well-equipped hospital with almost all facilities came into being. In 1956 when Damoh regained the status of a separate district, the hospital was also raised to the category of the District headquarters hospital. In order to commemorate its benefactor, the late P.S. Dhagat who died in 1955, this institution was named after him.

This Hospital had a bed strength of 85 including 10 beds in the Maternity Ward. The remaining consist of general beds and some isolation beds. The Civil Surgeon is the head (Superintendent) of this institution. There are four doctors besides the Civil Surgeon, Additional Civil Surgeon and other staff. X-ray, Laboratory and Surgery facilities are also available here. This Hospital also serves as a centre for antirabic treatment since 1957.

The only other hospital in the District is the Police Hospital, Damoh. The exact year of its establishment is not known. However, it is one of the oldest medical institutions in the District as it finds a mention in the earlier District Gazetteer. It is a 15 bedded hospital staffed by a Medical Officer, one male Nurse and one Compounder.

Police Hospital, Damoh

Primary Health Centres

With the opening of primary health centres in the Community Development and National Extension Service Block areas in the 1950's, the rural areas began to enjoy increased medical facilities. A primary health centre is an institution providing or making accessible, under the direct supervision of at least one Physician, the basic health services for a community. As mentioned earlier, the dispensaries that existed in the Block areas were upgraded to primary health centres. These primary health centres, thus established during the intensive phase of the working of the Blocks, were taken over by the public Health Department as and when they entered their post-intensive phase. A primary health centre may not have more than three sub-centres to extend medical facilities to the interior. Each primary health centre is staffed by a Medical Officer, one Compounder, one Dresser, one Lady Health Visitor, four Midwives (three for the three sub-centres), one Ward Boy, one peon, one Sweeper, one *Dhobi* and one Waterman. A Midwife is attached to each sub-centre. The Medical Officer in-charge of the primary health centre has to visit each sub-centre once a week. The names, location and dates of establishment of sub-centres of the seven primary health centres in the District are given below:—

(as on 31-3-1972)

S. No.	Location/Name of Primary Health Centre	Name of Sub-Centre	Year/Date of Establishment of Primary Health Centre
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)
1	Hatta	(1) Sakor (2) Gaisabad (3) Madiyado	2-10-1960

2	Batiagarh	(1) Fatehpur (2) Futera (3) Khaderi	1-10-1956
3	Hindoria	(1) Balakot (2) Halgaj (3) Laklaka	1-4-1963
4	Patharia	(1) Botaral (2) Kindarho (3) Sarkhadi	1-10-1955
5	Tendukheda	(1) Pura (2) Sailwara (3) Sarra	1-4-1958
6	Jabera	(1) Singpur (2) Bamhori Mal (3) Nohta	1-4-1957
7	Patera	(1) Luhari (2) Cheola Dubey (3) Hans Rajmagwa	Sept. 1963

Maternity and Child Welfare Centres

There are no maternity and child welfare centres as such in the District. Each primary health centre alongwith its sub-centres affords ample medical care to pregnant mothers and infants. The Lady Health Visitor attached to the primary health centre visits maternity cases—antenatal and post-natal. Two to four maternity beds are also provided in each primary health centre. There were 2 hospitals and 7 primary health centres with a total strength of 15 doctors in 1965. The number of indoor and out-door patients treated with bed strength in the District during 1961-1971 is given below.

Table No. XVI-6

Total Number of Patients Treated in the District

Year	No. of Patients Treated			No. of Beds
	Indoor	Outdoor	Total	
1961	3,290	1,23,329	1,26,619	115
1962	3,695	1,28,656	1,32,351	117
1963	4,138	1,14,010	1,18,148	120
1964	4,676	1,22,577	1,27,253	123
1965	6,397	1,31,421	1,37,818	123
1966	4,185	1,24,301	1,28,486	100
1967	4,100	1,24,562	1,28,662	114
1968	4,323	1,30,807	1,35,153	114
1969	484	67,831	68,315	45
1970	649	70,729	71,378	122
1971	3,023	97,156	1,00,179	122

Source:—Civil Surgeon, Damoh.

Expenditure on Medical and Public Health

The expenditure incurred on medical and public health activities by the Government hospitals and dispensaries annually was as shown below.

Table No. XVI-7

Expenditure on Medical aud Public Health activities in the District

(In Rs.)

Year	Amount
1960-61	1,28,699
1961-62	3,07,728
1962-63	58,966
1963-64	2,21,784
1064-65	82,553
1965-66	2,56,193
1966-67	NA
1967-68	NA
1968-69	2,88,109
1969-70	7,99,082
1970-71	2,91,515

Source:—Civil Surgeon, Damoh.

Training of Para-medical Personnel

There are no training centres for para-medical personnel in the District. *Dais* are, however, trained at the District headquarters hospital and primary health centres.

Ayurvedic Dispensaries

It was only towards the late 1930's that the Government thought of promoting the use of indigenous medicines which, because of their cheapness, were within the means of the masses and at the same time efficacious. Consequently, Government appointed a Committee (Resolution of the Medical Department dated 21st December, 1937) to examine the indigenous systems of medicine practised in the Province. After a detailed study the Committee recommended that "medical relief on Ayurvedic and Unani lines should be extended on a large scale wherever possible", and that "One Ayurvedic or one Unani dispensary should be established for every area 10 miles in radius."[1]

As through the implementation of this recommendation it was possible to extend medical facilities especially to large rural areas with less costs, the Government accepted the Committee's proposal in principle. Efforts have since been made to promote the indigenous system of medicine by establishing Government and aided *Ayurvedic* dispensaries in urban and rural areas of the District as elsewhere in the State. However, in Damoh District *Ayurvedic* dispensaries appear to have been established since the 1950's only.

1. Report of the Committee appointed to examine the Indigenous system of Medicine practised in the Central Provinces and Berar, p. 8.

The District had 9 Government *Ayurvedic* dispensaries and 14 others managed by the Local Bodies, 2 of which were closed later. The dates of establishment of Government dispensaries and their location, etc., are given in Appendix. Of the dispensaries managed by the different Local Bodies, seven dispensaries, namely, the Nagar Parishad Dharmarth Aushdhalaya, Damoh, the Hindoria, Taradehi and Kishunganj dispensaries under Janapada Sabha, Damoh, and the Madiyado, Kumhari and Hinota dispensaries under Janapada Sabha Hatta, receive annual grant-in-aid from the Government. The grant-in-aid for each dispensary includes salary of the *Vaidya* and Rs. 400 for medicines and contingencies.

Number of Dispensaries

Each *Ayurvedic* dispensary, (Government and others) is under the charge of a qualified *Vaidya*. The Municipal Ayurvedic Dispensary (Nagar Parishad Dharmarth Aushdhalaya) has, in addition, a Compounder and a Peon. There are no facilities for indoor treatment in any of these dispensaries. Medicines are supplied to outdoor patients free of cost. The average number of patients annually treated at the Municipal Council Dispensary, Damoh, was 17,000 and that at the eight dispensaries under the Damoh Janapada Sabha was 5,055. The three dispensaries under the Hatta Jadapada Sabha treated 3,055 patients on an average every year.

Staff position, Number of patients treated, etc.

Homoeopathic Dispensaries

There is only one Homoeopathic Dispensary in the District, at Sadguan. Established on 5th February, 1963, this Dispensary is under the management of the Janapada Sabha, Damoh. There is one Homoeopathic Assistant Medical Officer, who also does vaccination and inoculation work. The Dispensary receives an annual grant-in-aid of Rs. 200 from the Government.

Private Hospitals and Nursing Homes

There is only one private hospital in the District, namely, the Christian Hospital, Damoh, which was established in 1906 by the United Christian Missionary Society, U.S.A. This 20 bedded Hospital has laboratory and X-ray facilities. The 12 member staff of this institution includes one Doctor (Medical Superintendent), two Nurses, one Compounder and one Dresser. Extension of the main building with the addition of a maternity block, children's ward, private rooms and extra male and female wards, was contemplated. The medical treatment afforded by this institution from 1960 to 1971 was as shown in the table below,

Christian Hospital, Damoh

Table No. XVI—8

Number of Patients Treated

Year	Indoor Patients (New)	Outdoor Patients (New)
1960	202	2,934
1961	425	3,559
1962	385	3,344
1963	326	3,593
1964	309	3,354
1965	285	3,927
1966	225	2,903
1967	195	2,646
1968	211	2,626
1969	179	2,277
1970	169	2,360
1971	149	939

Source.—Medical Superintendent, Christian Hospital, Damoh.

There are no Government or private nursing homes in the District.

Medical and Public Health Research Centres

There are no institutions exclusively for purposes of research and dissemination of knowledge on public health other than a branch of the Indian Medical Association and the urban and rural Family Planning clinics.

The District Medical Association

A District Medical Association was constituted on 21st June, 1962 as an affiliated body of the Indian Medical Association. The purpose of this Association is to hold monthly clinical meetings and discuss various important problems connected with medicine and public health. In 1964 this Association had 30 members. In 1966 the membership was only 12.

The Indian Red Cross Society

A district branch of the Indian Red Cross Society was started on 1st July, 1959. The aims and objects of the Society include financial and medical aid to the poor and needy. Till 1964 a sum of Rs. 380 was donated by the Society to the poor patients. It also provided crutches and artificial limbs to *jawans* disabled in the Chinese aggression at a cost of Rs. 200. The Society initiates literacy drive among illiterate patients and supplies them books, slates, pens, etc. Distribution of multi-vitamin tablets and similar medicines among poor patients also forms part of its activities. The Collector and Civil Surgeon are the honorary President and Secretary of the Society, respectively.

A branch of the St. Johns Ambulance Association has also been started in the District in 1966.

Family Planning

With a view to providing adequate medical advice to mothers in bringing up healthy children, a revised and modified Family Planning Programme was chalked out in 1957 in the light of Government of India's proposals with suitable modifications meeting the requirements of the State. A number of rural and urban family planning clinics were started in subsequent years. It was also decided that primary health centres in Block areas should serve as nuclei for Family Planning programme in rural areas. The urban and rural family planning clinics that were functioning in the District on the 31st of March 1972, their location and year of establishment are given below.

S. No.	Name/Location of Family Planning Centre	Year
1.	Tendukheda Damoh Jabalpur Road via Patan 56 km. from Damoh.	1963
2.	Jabera Damoh Jabalpur Road, 42 km. from Damoh	1963
3.	Hindoria Damoh Patera Road, 16 km. from Damoh	1965
4.	Patharia Damoh to Sagar Road via Garakota, 50 km. from Damoh	1963
5.	Hatta Damoh Panna Road, 40 km. from Damoh	1963
6.	Batiagarh Damoh Chhatarpur Road, 35 km. from Damoh	1964
7.	Patera Damoh to Hindoria Panna Road, 35 km. from Damoh	1965

At these centres the Doctors, Nurses, male and female Social Workers, Health Visitors and Midwives advise visitors of both sexes on matters connected with family planning, besides distributing contraceptives. Cases of sterilization are, however, referred to the headquarters hospital.

Nutrition

Mention has been made that one of the main causes of infant mortality in the District was malnutrition. Owing to the deficiency of nutritive food, children suffer mostly from anaemia, rickets, beri-beri, etc. In order, therefore, to improve the general standard of health of infants and expectant mothers the UNICEF-aided scheme for free distribution of milk to the needy was launched in the District on 23rd February, 1958. The primary health centre is the agency for the distribution of milk for the area under its jurisdiction. In 1958, the very year of its inception, milk was distributed to 3,113 mothers and 17,037 children in the District. The number increased to 4,752 and 36,508 respectively, in the subsequent year.

The daily average number of mothers, children and others benefited through this Scheme and the number of days on which distribution work was carried during 1960-61 to 1969-70 are given below.

Table No. XVI—9

Persons benefited under Milk Supply Scheme

Year	Average Feeding Daily			No. of Days
	Mothers	Children	Others	
1960-61	97	247	48	334
1961-62	89	263	–	355
1962-63	94	251	..	360
1963-64	180	291	...	362
1964-65	72	411	–	362
1965-66	17	144	...	273
1966-67	48	472	–	300
1967-68	NA	NA	NA	NA
1968-69	32	270	–	144
1969-70	61	499	..	289

Source.—Civil Surgeon, Damoh.

Sanitation

With the appointment of the Medical Officer of each district (Civil Surgeon) as *ex officio* Sanitary Officer of the Local and Municipal Committees in 1864-65, the activities relating to the improvement of sanitation and conservancy arrangements in the Central Provinces might be said to have started receiving active consideration from the 'Administration'. This Officer was to act as an adviser to the civil authorities of a district in this respect, in addition to being chiefly responsible for improving sanitation of the principal town of the district in particular. In order to decentralise their activities the Local Committees also constituted Sanitary Sub-Committees. In subsequent years public latrines were constructed in important towns and a regularly paid conservancy establishment was charged with maintenance and supervision of sanitation work as well as enforcement of ordinary sanitation regulations.

It was in 1865-66 that village conservancy was initially commenced throughout the country. But no separate conservancy staff could be organised for each village because of their large number and vast area. In the alternative, the principal landholders in rural areas were instructed to see that sanitary rules were observed in the villages. The civil authorities made occasional visits to these villages and satisfied themselves with the sanitary arrangements made by these landholders. One of the important objectives of Village Conservancy Rules was the provision of good drinking water.

The special commissioner who was in charge of the supervision and control of the Department of Sanitation toured extensively in villages and towns throughout the Province. Results of his inspection were brought to the notice of local authorities. The local authorities acted on the suggestions and recom-

mendations of the Commissioner so as to remedy the defects and enforce observance of a set of sanitary rules prescribed in earlier years. The result was a general improvement in the sanitary conditions of villages and towns. In this year the copies of "Practical Hints on Sanitation" prepared by the Army Sanitary Commission were supplied to all municipalities. The *Sanitary Primer* issued by the Sanitary Commission was translated into the vernaculars, copies of which were supplied to schools and were put to use systematically.

Sanitary Board

Under the Central Provinces Village Sanitation Act, XIX of 1889, the Chief Commissioner was empowered to enforce certain sanitary reforms, and by a Resolution dated 22nd July, 1889 the Chief Commissioner constituted a Sanitary Board with the Deputy Surgeon-General (also the Special Commissioner) and the Superintending Engineer to chalk out a plan for a general sanitary survey of all municipalities. The survey mainly aimed at providing a system of water supply and drainage in the municipal towns.

Activities under rural sanitation included work like clearing village sites and maintenance of village conservancy. Hatta was the only village under the Village Sanitation Act in the District, the Act having been applied to that village in 1901 consequent upon the abolition of its municipal constitution.[1]

Sanitation by Panchayats

It was in the twenties of the present century, when the Central Provinces and Berar Village Sanitation and Public Management Act of 1920 and the Central Provinces and Berar Village Panchayat Act were introduced, that arrangements for rural sanitation and conservancy became the responsibility of the Village Panchayats—an arrangement that continued till the late forties. With the introduction of Gram Panchayats in 1948, this responsibility was shifted to the Gram Panchayats. The municipalities, however, continued to look after this work in the urban areas.

Present set-up

Under the present set-up Sanitation of the rural areas is being looked after by the respective Gram Panchayats under the supervision of the Janapad Sabhas. However, this responsibility rests with the Community Development Blocks in respect of areas under their jurisdiction. The primary health centres established in the block areas are the chief centres of these activities. The Medical Officer of the primary health centre acts as Health Officer for that area, assisted by the Health Visitor and Sanitary Inspector. The Janapada Sabhas and municipal committees also have separate staff consisting of Health Visitors, Sanitary Inspectors and Vaccinators.

Water Supply

Supply of pure drinking water in the urban areas is the responsibility of

1. *Damoh District Gazetteer.*

the respective municipal committees. Pipe-water supply exists only in Damoh town in the District.* In Hatta town, people chiefly depend upon the Sonar river which flows all the year round. However, a water-works scheme for Hatta town at an estimated cost of Rs. 6,10,000 was sanctioned by the Government in 1966.

In the rural areas the Janapada Sabhas with the help of Gram Panchayats and Development Blocks make arrangements for an adequate supply of drinking water by constructing news wells and repairing old ones. In 1965-66 the Damoh Janapada Sabha alone constructed four new wells in the rural areas. The provision of drinking water facilities form the core of public health activities in Development Blocks. The work done in this regard during the Five Year Plan periods was as given below.

Table No. XVI—10

Water Supply in Block areas

S. No.	Name of Block	New Wells Constructed I	II	III	Existing Wells Repaired I	II	III
1	Batiagarh	8	37	36	1	15	15
2	Patharia	6	12	21	...	10	19
3	Tendukheda	...	19	25	..	3	10
4	Jabera	—	4	16	—	16	6
5	Hatta	—	..	17	—	—	22
6	Damoh	—	—	4	—	..	3
7	Patera	...	..	17	..	..	7

Source.—Planning and Development Department.

Drainage and Slum Clearance

The municipal committees are responsible for this work in the urban areas. At present Damoh town alone has drainage system and arrangements for slum clearance.**

In Damoh Janapada Sabha certain Gram Panchayats have employed sweepers for slum clearance. Drainage construction activities in the Block areas during the three Plan periods were as shown in the table below.

Table No. XVI—11

Sanitation in Block areas

S. No.	Name of Block	Surface Drainage I	II	III
1	Batiagarh	384.98	1,376.32	..
2	Patharia	883.54	883.55	..
3	Tendukheda	..	2,002.92	—
4	Jabera	—	1,982.67	763.23
5	Hatta	—	—	—
6	Damoh	...	..	288.73
7	Patera	—	—	9.62

Source.—Planning and Development Department.

* For details See Chapter XIV.
** ibid.

CHAPTER XVII

OTHER SOCIAL SERVICES

Prohibition

Prohibition of *Charas* and Liquor

A mild beginning towards prohibition was first made in the District in August, 1924, when the import, possession and sale of *Charas* was prohibited throughout the Central Provinces and Berar of which Damoh District formed a constituent part. Subsequently in 1929 the State Government took a momentous decision to introduce prohibition of liquor also in the urban and rural areas of this District. Thus the District of Damoh alone was officially declared dry on the principle of 'Local option' and on the demand of its enlightened public almost about a decade before the Prohibition Act was passed.

In 1934 it was found that a good deal of smuggling and illicit distillation was going on in this dry area. Cases of consumption of denatured spirit were also detected. A detailed investigation showed that Chamars, Dhobis, Nais and other drinking classes of Damoh town were the purchasers of this spirit since ordinary liquor was not available. It further made clear that the experiment of total prohibition in the region cannot be declared a success.

Total Prohibition

In the latter half of 1937, the State Government decided to adopt the policy of total prohibition of liquor including toddy. As the first step towards implementation of this prohibition policy, the whole of Sagar District, including Damoh Sub-Division (present Damoh District), alongwith a few other areas of the province, was declared 'dry' with effect from 1st January, 1938, under the Excise Acts. All these areas were formally brought under the Central Provinces and Berar Prohibition Act on the 1st of April 1938, when the Act was brought into force. The Act penalised all traffic in and consumption of liquor, except the use of spirit for medicinal, scientific and industrial purposes. Provision was also made for the issue of permits for the use of liquor for religious purposes and for those who by long habit were accustomed to foreign liquor.

To safeguard against smuggling and to minimise the temptation to visit liquor shops across the prohibition border, all shops within five miles of the

District were closed. This five mile shopless zone was extended to 10 miles from the beginning of 1939.[1] For creating strong public opinion against drink, intensive propaganda was done by means of magic lantern, lectures, widespread distribution of anti-drink posters and leaflets, and mass meetings. To advise the district authorities, Anti-Drink Committees were organised in the District. Prevention, detection and prosecution of prohibition offences were decided to be the responsibility of Police Department. In the beginning of August, 1938, the police took over the work and the excise staff stood by and helped them in technical and other matters. Negotiation with the Panna State Darbar to close down three unauthorised shops, which were opened on the border of the 'dry' Damoh Sub-Division and which attracted a large number of customers from Damoh, was carried through and the Darbar closed down those shops.

Measures to Enforce Prohibition

With effect from 1st January, 1948, the sale and consumption of opium, *ganja* and *bhang* were also prohibited in this 'dry' area as it was found that the liquor addicts had taken to these drugs. Drunkenness in 'dry' area was declared an offence. Exemption from the provisions of Prohibition Act in favour of non-Asiatics was also withdrawn. In April, 1948, posts of paid propagandists were abolished and the propaganda work was carried out under the Adult and Social Education Scheme by the Social Education Department.

Prohibition of *Ganja* and *Bhang*

With a view to creating strong public opinion against the evils of drinking for the purpose of effective enforcement of Prohibition, intensive anti-drink propaganda was undertaken. Prohibition weeks were celebrated from time to time depicting the evils from drinking through posters, leaflets and prohibition films. Social Education and Tribal Welfare Departments also did propaganda work. In the same year, rules in respect of issue of foreign liquor permits for private consumption were made more stringent. Production of certificate from Civil Surgeon was made compulsory for issuing permits to consumers. To check the misuse of medicinal and toilet preparations for purposes of intoxication, the Prohibition Amendment Act was brought into force from 14th November, 1953. Prohibition week, subsequently, began to be celebrated from 2nd to 8th October every year. Financial aid was given to social welfare institutions such as Bharat Sewak Samaj and Samaj Shiksha Samiti for carrying out prohibition propaganda.

Anti-drink Propaganda

The most serious difficulty in the way of success of prohibition has been a continuously rising tide of illicit distillation of liquor. The enlightened public of the Sub-Division admitted that illicit distillation was there on a very wide scale. It developed into a prosperous cottage industry and the apparatus used for distillation had the advantage of being destroyed in an incredibly short time to elude

Difficulties Encountered

1. Since 1956 there are no shopless zones.

the grasp of the enforcement staff who later could not detect the crime. Moreover, checking of liquor smuggling from the adjoining wet areas was found impracticable. Added to this, the consumption of denatured spirit, etc., by liquor addicts was also on the increase.

Prohibition Offences

The following table shows classified offences registered in the District under the Prohibition and Excise Acts during recent years.

Table No. XVII-1

Excise Offences

Offences	1961-62	62-63	63-64	64-65	65-66	66-67	67-68	68-69	69-70
1. Illicit Distillation	55	63	70	65	77	15	59	45	75
2. Found in a state of intoxication	—	39	26	23	44	6	—	—	—
3. Illegal possession of *ganja*	43	31	43	61	59	11	4	3	18
4. Illegal cultivation of hemp drugs	—	2	2	14	2	—	2	—	—
5 Under Mahua Rules	—	—	1	4	7	—	2	4	3
6. Illegal possession of opium	2	9	—	1	3	—	—	3	1
7. Departmental offences	—	8	4	1	1	—	27	87	83

Source.—District Excise Officer, Damoh.

Besides these, in 1962-63 there was one offence of illegal possession of liquor, while one and two cases of illegal sale of liquor were detected in 1962-63 and 1963-64, respectively. In the same two years two and one offence, respectively, of illegal tapping of toddy were detected. The figures given above show that offences under the Prohibition and Excise Acts increased by 93 per cent during the five year period from 1961-62 to 1965-66.

Anti-Drink Movements

After the celebrated Session of the Congress at Nagpur in 1920, the Legislative Council of Central Provinces and Berar adopted a resolution in favour of the gradual prohibition of the consumption of country liquor in 1921. Since then the public opinion of the Platform and the Press began to take a practical form. Local leaders of Damoh organised a movement in the most systematic way and this resulted, as mentioned earlier, in declaring Damoh a dry District.

In the early years of prohibition, official reports were very eloquent about its success. Thus, in 1938, it was stated that the policy of prohibition "is attended with a large measure of success and has considerably benefited the drinking classes.........Women everywhere welcome prohibition as a great blessing. They appreciate the fact that closure of liquor shops has brought money and peace into their homes." But, according to the report of the subsequent year, the statistics of Sagar District including Damoh Sub-Division were disquieting. In 1949 it was said that prohibition has generally improved the moral, physical and economic condition of the people, who were formerly given to drinking.

Success Achieved

The report of the year 1950 admits that "As public opinion regarding the results of prohibition was sharply divided, a fact-finding committee has been appointed by Government to enquire into the results of prohibition and recommend for the consideration of Government the policy that should be adopted for the future." The Committee found that "The revenue which Government is surrendering goes to feed the very evil, which the law seeks to check." Further it added that the hope that the poor people would forswear drink was blasted. District Damoh cannot claim isolation from these observations made in general for all the 'dry' areas of Madhya Pradesh. An Ordinance, No. 9 of 1967, the Madhya Pradesh Madya Nishedh Vidhi Nirsan Adhyadesh was promulgated by the Governor to repeal the Prohibition Act of 1938 and it came into force with effect from 1st September, 1967.

Advancement of Backward Classes and Tribes

The Scheduled Castes and Scheduled Tribes Lists (Modification) Order, 1956 made by the President does not schedule any tribe in the District although there are tribals such as Gond, Saonr and Bharia Bhumia.

As regards Castes, only eleven Castes, Scheduled by the above Order, were returned in the District during the Census operations of 1961. The total strength of them in the District was then 80,334 persons.

The persons of these Castes greatly depend on agriculture. In 1961, about 58 per cent of their working force were engaged in agricultural occupations as cultivators and agricultural labourers. This suggests that there is great land hunger in them. Of the rural cultivating households of Scheduled Castes, 24 per cent were sub-tenants either of whole or part of their holdings. About 5 per cent did not own any part of the land cultivated by them, while 19 per cent owned only a part of their holdings, the remaining portion being on sub-lease from others. It was also found that, there was a 'smallness' of individual holdings. About 9 per cent of the rural cultivating households hold next to nothing in the name of land, the size of holding of each household being less than one acre, while 28 per cent of the rural cultivating households hold only one to

Occupational Statistics

2.5 acres of land. One-fourth, i.e., 24 per cent cultivating households owned 2.5 to 5 acres of land, while about 15 per cent of them owned more than 10 acres of land.

Thus, three-fifths of the rural cultivating households among Scheduled Castes, having holdings of less than five acres each, did not perhaps own enough land to ensure even a bare subsistence return and always looked to other avenues for supplementing their income. The next important occupation of the persons belonging to Scheduled Castes is household industry, where, in 1961, about 24 per cent of their working force was engaged. The majority of them being Chamars and Basors they followed their traditional or hereditary cottage industries, namely, leather works and making of bamboo articles, respectively. The other services category of occupations is another important field in which about 14 per cent of them were engaged in 1961.

The brief description of occupational statistics of the Scheduled Castes as given above reveals the fact that the economic condition of these Castes is far from satisfactory. In pursuance of the Directive Principles of the Constitution to provide better economic and social opportunities, the State Government took effective measures for their betterment as listed below.

Welfare Measures

(1) A scheme to give legal aid to persons belonging to the Scheduled Castes was initiated for civil, criminal or revenue court cases and Rs. 100 to Rs. 200 were earmarked for this purpose.

(2) In the Second and the Third Five Year Plan periods 11 and 28 Scheduled Caste families of the District, respectively, received Rs. 5,500 and Rs. 7,500 in the form of agricultural subsidy for purposes of soil conservation, etc. During the years 1961-62 and 1962-63 about 45.6 acres and 31.8 acres of fallow land was allotted to the landless persons of these Castes for cultivation, etc.

(3) In the Second and Third Plan period, fourteen and three wells, respectively, at the cost of Rs. 24,000 and Rs 4,000 were constructed in the District for the Scheduled Castes.

(4) In 1964-65 a sum of Rs. 45,000 was sanctioned for constructing fifty houses for sweepers at Damoh. The first instalment of Rs. 15,000 was allotted to the Municipal Committee, Damoh, for the same purpose About 33 houses under the scheme have already been constructed.

(5) For the economic welfare of the Scheduled Castes and Backward Classes Co-operative Movement was introduced in the District. In 1934 there were only two industrial co-operative societies for their betterment. In 1948, six such societies, having a membership of 30 persons and a share capital of Rs. 166, were working in the District. They borrowed a loan of Rs. 500 from

the Central Co-operative Bank and advanced loans worth Rs. 544 to their members. In 1958 the number of societies increased to 12 with 175 members contributing about Rs. 3,900 as share capital. They borrowed loans to the tune of Rs. 30,151 and advanced Rs. 34,692 as loans to their members. Such co-operative societies increased to 17 in 1959, 19 in 1960 and 22 in 1961. The 17 societies of 1959 had 424 members, raising Rs. 9,169 as share capital. They borrowed Rs. 1,26,832 and forwarded loans worth Rs. 73,594 to their members. In 1960 the total membership of 19 societies was 517, their share capital being Rs. 14,913. Borrowing Rs. 91,011 they advanced loans worth Rs. 1,02,896 to the members. The 22 societies of 1961, claiming 662 memberships, raised a share capital of Rs. 21, 582 and, borrowing Rs. 1,12,490, distributed loans to members of the value of Rs. 1,32,719.

In 1956 one Adivasi Multipurpose Co-operative Society was registered at Badipura under the management of Vanwasi Sewa Mandal. It was transferred to Tribal Welfare Department in 1966. In 1960, Janajati Shramik Sahakart Samitis of Bamori Taradehi were registered as Multipurpose Co-operative Societies. They were later converted into Forest Labour Co-operative Societies in 1964. The Government extended financial assistance in the form of share capital for Rs. 10,000 and godown loan for Rs. 7,500. This Society is affiliated to the Apex Tribal Central Co-operative Society, Ltd., Bhopal and receives loans etc., from time to time from the Apex Society. This society purchased forests on auction and prepared charcoal, etc.

Adivasi Co-operative Collective Farming Societies at Laklaka and Parsai were registered in 1960 and 1963, respectively. Since no land could be allotted to them these societies remained ineffective. Two other Collective Farming Societies at Lakhanpur and Jer were registered in 1964. The Society at Lakhanpur had 13 landless Adivasi families as their members. The State Government allotted 128 acres of waste land to this society and granted Rs. 4,875 at the rate of Rs. 375 per family as grant-in-aid and Rs. 1,625 at the rate of Rs. 125 per family as loan. The share capital subsidy at the rate of Rs. 20 per family totalling Rs. 260 was also provided. The Co-operative Department also provided Rs. 2,000 as share capital, Rs. 3,750 as godown loan, Rs. 1,250 as godown subsidy, Rs. 4,000 as medium term loan, etc.

The Society at Jer was registered for settling 14 landless Adivasi families. It received 139 acres of waste land from the State Government. Besides this, the society received financial aid from the State Government and Co-operative Department at the same rate as was given to the Society at Lakhanpur. In spite of these efforts no satisfactory results were noticeable till 1967.

There is also one Adivasi Vanawasi Shramik Sahakari Samiti Ltd., at Singrampur, registered in 1964 with a membership of 30 persons. The society received financial assistance of Rs. 10,000 and Rs. 7,500 towards share capital and godown loan, respectively.

The Adivasi Collective Farming Societies at Parsai and Laklaka and the Multipurpose Cooperative Society, Badipura have since been liquidated. On the 10th of June, 1972 three Forest Labourers' Cooperative Societies and 20 Cooperative Farming Societies of Adivasis were registered in the District. Government have allotted land to 10 Farming Societies. During 1970-71 an amount of Rs. 4,328 and Rs. 4,888 was given as grant in aid to the Cooperative Collective Farming Societies at Mala and Kharipkhara, respectively. The Societies at Warimadiada and Kalkuan got a grant of Rs. 2,256 and Rs. 1,000 respectively, in 1971-72.

Similarly, 84 Cooperative Societies of Harijans were registered in the District till the end of June 1972. Of these two were Credit Cooperative Societies which provide credit facilities to their members after borrowing loans from the Central Cooperative Bank Ltd., Damoh. Five were Industrial Cooperative Societies but two of them are defunct. The remaining 77 are Cooperative Collective Farming Societies. Land has been allotted to 51 of them by the Government. In 1971-72 Government gave a grant of Rs. 9,000 to each of the Farming Societies at Bartalai and Satoa, Rs. 10,000 to each of the Societies at Sakor, Deori-Liladhar and Rajghat-Mudari and Rs. 8,700 and Rs. 8,500 to the Societies at Madankheda and Banjaryau, respectively.

Charitable Endowments

Legislations

The Charitable Endowments Act 1890, (Central Act VI of 1890) provided for the vesting and administration of property held in Trust for charitable purposes. Under sub-section (1) of Section 3 of this Act, the Secretary to the Government of Madhya Pradesh, Finance Department has been appointed the Treasurer of Charitable Endowments from June, 1955.

The Charitable and Religious Trusts Act, 1920 (Central) was passed and amended in 1921, 1937, 1950 and 1951. This Act provided a more effectual control over the administration of the Trusts made for charitable and religious purposes. The Government of the Central Provinces and Berar for the first time passed the Central Provinces and Berar Religious and Charitable Trusts Act in 1937, which was amended in 1948 and repealed in 1951 by the Madhya Pradesh Public Trusts Act of the same year.

Public Trusts

The main administrative authority of the Public Trusts in the District is the Collector who is the Registrar of Public Trusts. The Sub Divisional Officers are also empowered to function as Registrar in their respective Sub Divisions. The Act controls the administration of all Public Trusts registered with the Registrar, who looks after the proper management and functioning of these Trusts. The Manager or the Secretary of the Trust is authorised to spend the amount of the Trust normally required for the proper working of the day-to-day essential activities

of the Trusts. He also prepares annual budget of the Trust and sends it for the approval of the Registrar. The Local Fund Audit Department audits the accounts.

There are 94 Public Trusts in the District. All these Trusts are devoted to purely religious objects. As regards Charitable Endowments, the following two are functioning in District.

Late Umashankar Gangashankar Thakkar of Damoh donated a sum of Rs. 7,100 in the form of promissory notes and created this fund in 1945. The object of the Fund is to award two scholarships to two poor post-matric and matric students belonging to Gujrati Baj-Khedawal Brahman caste residing in Madhya Pradesh. Annual income of Rs. 211 is acrrued from the interest on the Fund.

Pandit Premshankar Gangashankar Scholarship Fund

Bejnath Pandya, a retired Assistant Commissioner, created this Fund by donating Rs. 8,400 with the object of awarding middle school scholarships to poor and intelligent students of Baj-Khedawal Brahman caste residing in Damoh District.

Shri Rai Bahadur Pandya Bejnath Middle School Scholarship Fund

CHAPTER XVIII

PUBLIC LIFE AND VOLUNTARY SOCIAL SERVICE ORGANISATIONS

Representation in Union Legislature

Though the seed of representative institutions was sown in India by the Indian Councils Act, 1861, it was quickened into life in the Central Provinces and Berar by the Indian Councils Act of 1909. The latter Act came into force in November, 1909 in the Central Provinces of which Damoh was one of the districts. But the representation of the District as such in the then Legislative Council of the Governor-General of India was very limited as it formed only a part of the two province-wide constituencies of the Central Provinces. These two elected only two members to sit in the Legislative Council of the Governor-General.

Elections to Legislative Council of Governor General

In pursuance of the provisions of regulations for the nomination and election of additional members of his Legislative Council, the Governor-General in Council called upon the District Councils and Municipal Committees and the landholders of Central Provinces to elect one member to the Legislative Council from their respective constituencies.

The members other than those appointed *ex-officio* of the District Councils and the Municipal Committees and the voters on the landholders' electoral roll selected their respective delegates to form their respective electoral colleges to vote for election of these two Additional Members. The Councillors of the District Council of Damoh District and of the Municipality of Damoh each selected one delegate; similarly landholders of the District selected one delegate to be enrolled in their respective electoral colleges.[1]

A change in this procedure of election of an Additional Member was brought in 1912. The right to elect an Additional Member which was conferred on the District Councils and Municipalities was transferred to the non-official members of the Chief Commissioner's Legislative Council, first formed in 1914-15. These non-official members since then elected an Additional Member of the Legislative Council of the Governor-General of India.[2] The constituency of landholders remained undisturbed.

1. Central Provinces Gazette Notification Dated 10th December, 1909.
2. Central Provinces Gazette, Part I, June 20, 1914, p. 747.

Under the provisions of the Government of India Act of 1919 two Legislatures were formed at the Centre. The Central Provinces, excluding certain *zamindari* and *jagirdari* estates and some other backward tracts, formed one constituency for the election of a member to the Council of State. Similarly the Province, excluding above estates, was represented by five members, elected by its four non-territorial constituencies, in the Indian Legislative Assembly. Damoh District formed part of the following three province-wide constituencies.[1]

Council of States and Indian Legislative Assembly

(1) Double-member Central Provinces, Hindi Division (non-Muhammadan),

(2) Central Provinces (Muhammadan), and

(3) Central Provinces Landholders.

Berar separately formed a constituency to return one member each to these Legislatures at the Centre.

Under the Government of India Act of 1935 also the position of representation remained much the same and continued till the inauguration of the Republican Constitution of India, in 1950.

Under this new Republican Constitution, delimitation of the constituencies in the country for the election of members to the House of People or Lok Sabha was effected. The District, during the first General Elections of 1951-52 to Lok Sabha, was covered by the Parliamentary constituencies of (1) Sagar (2) Jabalpur North. Under the Delimitation of Parliamentary and Assembly Constituencies Order of 1956, the constituencies were reconstituted for the Second General Elections of 1957. The Parliamentary Constituency of (1) Sagar included the territories covered by the District together with some parts of other adjoining districts. The constituency was Double-Member and one seat was reserved for Scheduled Castes. The Delimitation of Parliamentary and Assembly Constituencies Order of 1961 abolished the double-member constituencies and, instead, allotted one seat to each constituency and thus brought about change in respect of extent of constituencies. Consequently, Damoh District, during the Third General Elections of 1962, was included in Damoh Scheduled Castes Constituency, which also contained a few Legislative Assembly constituencies of Sagar and Jabalpur districts.

General Elections to Lok Sabha

In the General Elections of 1967 and Mid-term Lok Sabha Elections held in 1971 Damoh parliamentary constituency covered all the Assembly constituencies of the District and five Assembly Constituencies of Jabalpur district.

1. Ibid. 1920, p. 885.

Representation in State Legislature

Legislative Council of Chief Commissioner

The representative Government in the Central Provinces and Berar was practically confined to Local Bodies till 1914 and the Legislative Authority for the Central Provinces was the Imperial Council of the Governor-General of India while Legislation for Berar was effected by Notification issued by the Governor-General in Council under the power conferred on him in 1902. The Central Provinces and Berar was then administered by the Chief Commissioner. By a proclamation it was declared to be a province (with effect from 10th November, 1913) and the provisions of the Indian Councils Acts 1861 to 1909 were made applicable thereto. The Central Provinces Legislative Council of the Chief Commissioner was established in 1914. The Governor-General in Council, under the Indian Councils Act, 1909, issued Regulations for the nomination and election of members to the Legislative Council of the Central Provinces and Berar on 15th November, 1913. By these Regulations the ordinary constitution of the provincial council was as follows.

(1) Elected Members

(a) Three members elected by the municipal committees of Central Provinces.

(b) Two members elected by the District Council of Central Provinces.

(c) Two members elected by the Landholders of Central Provinces.

(d) Three members elected by the above organisations one each from Berar.

(2) Nominated Members

Eleven officials nominated by the Chief Commissioner.

Four non-officials nominated by the Chief Commissioner.

The municipal councillors of Damoh alongwith other municipal councillors of Central Provinces exercised their right of electing one member from their electoral group. Similarly, the District Councillor and landholders of the District elected one member each from their respective groups alongwith the district councillors and landholders of the province. According to this scheme, the District was represented in the provincial council in a very limited sense by three members.

The first meeting of this First Legislative Council, Central Provinces, was held on 17th August, 1914. The term of the First Council expired in July, 1917, when reelections to the Second Council took place. The Second Council functioned till August, 1920. The representation in these councils remained undisturbed.

Provision for constituting the Central Provinces into a Governor's province was made in toe Gocernment of India Act, 1919. The provisions of the Act and Central Provinces Legislative Council Rules came into force from 17th December, 1920. The reformed Legislative Council, therefore, replaced the Legisiative Council of the Chief Commissioner. It met first in January, 1921. The new Legislative Council consisted of 70 members as shown below.

C.P. Legislative Council

36 Members elected by the constituencies of Central Provinces,

17 Members nominated as a result of election held in Berar,

7 Officials nominated by the Governor,

8 Non-officials nominated by the Governor, and

2 *Ex-officio* members of the Executive Council of the Governor.

The 36 elected members of the reformed Legislative Council were from the following constituencies.

Table No. XVIII—1

Legislative Constituencies in 1920

Name of Constituency	No. of Constituency	No. of Members from Constituency
1. Non-Muhammadan (Urban)	6	7
2. Non-Muhammadan (Rural)	21	21
3. Muhammadan (Rural)	4	4
4. Special	4	4
Total	35	36

The special constituencies included (1) Jubbulpore-Nerbudda Landholders, (2) Nagpur-Chhattisgarh Landholders, (3) Central Provinces and Berar Mining Association and (4) Central Provinces Commerce and Industry.

Damoh District was represented in this reformed Legislative Council of the Governor of Central Provinces through the following six single-member constituencies.—

(1) Jubbulpore Division, Non-Muhammadan urban which included Damoh Municipality,

(2) Jubbulpore Division Muhammadan Rural,

(3) Jubbulpore and Nerbudda Landholders and

(4) Damoh District Non-Muhammadan Rural. Besides, it was a part of a few Non-territorial constituencies such as

(5) Central Provinces Commerce and Industry and

(6) Central Provinces and Berar Mining Association.

The Council functioned from January 1921 to October 1923.

The Second Council came into being in January 1924 and lasted till September 1926. No change occurred in respect of representation of the District and old constituencies. A new Non-territorial (Special) Nagpur University Constituency was formed and it returned an elected member for the first time in 1923 to sit in the Council. Damoh District formed a part of this constituency also. Thus the total strength of members and elected members of the Council increased by one.

The third Council was constituted in January 1927 and was dissolved in August 1930. The representation of the District in this remained undisturbed. Mandla District returned an elected member to this Council for the first time as the District was enfranchised and given benefit of the Reforms in 1927. This resulted in an increase of total number of members and number of elected members. It is worth mentioning that women were for the first time given right of contesting elections from the 3rd of September 1927.

The fourth Legislative Council of the Province commenced in December, 1930 and continued enjoying extensions till March, 1937. The representation of the District witnessed no change during this period.

C. P. and Berar Legislative Assembly

When the Government of India Act, 1935 came into force, the Province was entitled to constitute its Legislative Assembly. For the elections to the Assembly delimitation of constituencies was effected and under the Central Provinces and Berar Legislative Assembly Electoral Rules of 1936, first elections were held in 1937. All the 112 seats of the Assembly were to be filled in by elections. The Province was divided into various classes of constituencies and seats were allotted to them, as shown below.

Table No. XVIII—2

Legislative Constituencies in 1937

Classes of Constituences	No. of Representatives	Seats Reserved for Scheduled Castes
1. General	24	20
(a) Urban	10	1
(b) Rural	74	19
2. Muhammadan	14	—
(a) Urban	2	—
(b) Rural	12	—

3. Women	3	..
4. Backward Classes	1	–
5. Commerce	2	..
6. Landholders	3	..
7. Labour	2	–
8. European	1	–
9. Anglo-Indian	1	–
10. University	1	–

Damoh District was represented in the Provincial Legislative Assembly by the members elected from the constituencies named below along with other details.

Name of the Constituency	No. of Seats and their Nature	No. of Voters
1. Jubbulpur-Saugor-Seoni	General Urban	14,206
2. Damoh-Hatta	General Rural	32,530
	one Reserved for the Scheduled Tribes	3,461
3. Saugor-Narsinghpur	Muhammadan Rural	5,116

Besides the District also formed part of the Non-territorial constituencies like Commerce, University, etc. In the Second Elections of 1946, the representation of the District remained unchanged.

First Elections to Vidhan Sabha

Under the Republican Constitution of India, made applicable in 1950, the First General Elections to the new Vidhan Sabha (Madhya Pradesh Legislative Assembly) were held in 1951-52. Before these elections the delimitation of constituencies which covered the area of the District was effected. The area of the District was divided into three constituencies of which one was a Double Member constituency. Thus four members represented the District in the Assembly. Details of these constituencies in respect of electors, votes, etc., are shown below.

Table No. XVIII—3

Details of First General Elections

Name of the Constituency	No. of Electors	Total No. of Votes	Total No. of Valid Votes polled	Percentage of Col. 4 to 3	No. of Seats
1	2	3	4	5	6
Hatta	1,40,527	2,09,054	73,351	35	2
			One seat was reserved for Scheduled Castes.		
Tendukheda	49,804	49,804	25,005	51	1
Damoh	48,901	48,901	21,994	45	1

For the Second General Elections of 1957, the Delimitation of Parliamentary and Assembly Constituencies Order, 1956, reconstituted Assembly Constituencies of the District, which contained one Double-Member and two single-member constituencies. Relevant details of these are shown below.

Second Elections to Vidhan Sabha

Table No. XVIII—4

Details of Second General Elections

Name of Constituency	No. of Electors	Total No. of Votes	Total No. of Valid Votes polled	Percentage of col: 4 to 3	No. of Seats
1	2	3	4	5	6
Hatta	88,461	1,76,922	49,864	28.06	2
Damoh	46,735	46,735	20,390	43.62	(one seat Reserved 1 for Scheduled Castes)
Nohata	49,781	49,781	15,489	31.11	1

The number of constituencies was increased to four in the District during the Third General Elections of 1962, as a result of Two-Member Constituencies (Abolition) Act, 1961. Names of these constituencies and the number of electors, etc., in the Third General Elections are shown below.

Third Elections to Vidhan Sabha

Table No. XVIII—5

Details of Third General Elections

Name of the Constituency	No. of Electors	No. of Valid Votes polled	Percentage of col. 3 to 2
1	2	3	4
Nohata	54,372	20,355	37.43
Damoh	55,777	29,521	52.92
Hatta	49,800	20,304	40.77
Patharia (Reserved for Scheduled Castes)	50,411	15,785	31.23

In the Fourth General Elections of 1967 the District was covered by four Vidhan Sabha Constituencies. Names of these constituencies and the number of electors, etc., are shown below.

Fourth Elections to Vidhan Sabha

Table No. XVIII—6

Details of Fourth General Elections

Name of the Constituencies	No. of Electors	No. of Valid Votes polled	Percentages of col. 3 to 2
1	2	3	4
Nohata	65,926	41,445	62.86
Damoh	65,114	35,468	54.47
Hatta	57,296	28,671	50.00
Patharia	59,719	24,583	41.16

These four constituencies covered the District in the Fifth General Elections, 1972 also. Other details of election are shown below.

General Election
1972

Table No. XVIII—7

Details of Fifth General Elections

Name of Constituency	No. of Electors	No. of Valid Votes Polled	Percentage of Col. 3 to 2
1	2	3	4
Nohata	74,642	38,121	51.07
Damoh	74,690	51,422	68.85
Hatta	64,529	36,011	55.01
Patharia	65,491	31,024	47.37

Political Parties and Organisations

Nearly all the important political parties of the country have their branches in the District. A brief description of their comparative strength as evidenced by their performance in the three consecutive General Elections, is given in the following pages.

Congress

The first political party organised in the District was a branch of the Indian National Congress. A group of enthusiastic persons began to associate themselves with the activities of the Indian National Congress in the closing years of the first decade of this century. Congress became a forum attracting all nationalistic elements to its fold during the epic course of the freedom struggle. The party succeeded in its main work and the people of the District wholeheartedly supported it, by participating in the various movements.

The strength of the party was fully reflected in the two General Elections of 1937 and 1946 to the Central Provinces and Berar Legislative Assembly. In both these elections the Congress won all the seats except that of Saugor-Narsinghpur (Muhammadan—Rural) Constituency for which no party-candidate was set up.

In the post-Independence period, in the First General Elections of 1951-52, held under the Republican Constitution, the party put up a candidate for the Sagar and Jabalpur North Parliamentary Constituency to which the District was attached and came out victorious. It also contested all the four seats of Damoh District for the State Legislative Assembly and won all the four seats. In all it polled 53.2 per cent of the valid votes cast in the District. In the Double-Member Hatta constituency candidates of the Congress secured 30 per cent and 44 per cent of the valid votes, while in Tendukheda and Damoh constituencies the percentages of valid votes polled by the party-candidates were 42 and 58 respectively.

In the General Elections of 1957, the party set up two candidates for the Double-Member Sagar parliamentary Constituency and won both the seats. The party polled 25.04 and 35.28 per cent of the valid votes polled in this constituency. In the elections for the Vidhan Sabha, all the four candidates of the party came out victorious. In all, it polled 60.5 per cent of the valid votes cast in the District. In Damoh and Nohata constituencies, the party candidates secured 71.27 per cent and 79.13 per cent of valid votes polled, respectively, while in the Double-Member Hatta constituency the party obtained 19.82, and 30.51 per cent of the valid votes polled.

In the General Elections of 1962, the party put up a candidate for the Damoh (Scheduled Castes) Parliamentary Constituency and came out victorious by securing 77,710 (41.53 per cent) valid votes. In the elections for the Vidhan Sabha, the party set up candidates for the four seats of the District, but won only one seat, that of Nohata Constituency securing 38.75 per cent of the valid votes. In the other three constituencies, namely, Damoh, Hatta and Patharia (Scheduled Castes) the Congress candidates secured only 30.30, 36.65 and 26.82 per cent of valid votes, respectively.

Damoh parliamentary seat was captured by the Congress in 1967 securing 1,27,111 out of 2,63,448 valid votes. Candidates of Congress party won seats in the four Vidhan Sabha constituencies in the General Elections of 1967. The party candidates secured 25,053; 12,535; 10,450 and 10,577 valid votes in Nohata Damoh, Hatta and Patharia Vidhan Sabha constituencies out of the 41,445; 35,468; 28,671 and 24,583 total valid votes polled, respectively, in those constituencies.

In the Mid-term Lok Sabha Elections held in 1971, the Congress candidate got 1,42,124 out of 2,34,176 valid votes polled in Damoh Parliamentary Con-

stituency. He defeated the Congress (0) candidate by a margin of 67,629 votes. The Congress also contested all the four Vidhan Sabha seats from the District. It polled 27,081 out of 38,121 valid votes in Nohata, 16,544 out of 36,011 in Hatta and 13,724 out of 31,024 in Patharia and won these seats. In Damoh constituency it got 18,770 out of 51,422 valid votes and lost.

Bharatiya Jan Sangh

The District branch of this party was formally established in January 1952 at Damoh, though the workers of the Party had become active in the District just before the First General Elections of 1951-52.

In the First General Elections of 1947-52 the Jan Sangh contested Sagar and Jabalpur North Parliamentary seats and lost them after securing 31,943 and 27,433 valid votes. For the Legislative Assembly, it contested two seats of (Double-Member) Hatta constituency but lost them. The candidates of the party could poll only 11 and 9 per cent of the valid votes, respectively, for the two seats.

In the General Elections of 1957, the Jan Sangh contested both the seats of the double-member Sagar Constituency for the Lok Sabha, but lost them getting only 14.48 and 12.07 per cent of the valid votes. For the Vidhan Sabha the Sangh contested only the Damoh constituency seat, but lost it, having secured only 5.17 per cent of the valid votes polled in the constituency.

In 1962, the Jan Sangh contested Damoh Parliamentary seat and lost it. The candidate secured 49,735 or 25.35 per cent of valid votes polled in the constituency. For the Vidhan Sabha, the party contested only two out of the four seats, but lost both. It, however, managed to secure 4,075 or 20.01 per cent and 3,305 or 16.27 per cent valid votes in the constituencies of Nohata and Hatta, respectively.

In the Lok Sabha Election of 1967 the candidate of Jan Sangh secured only 67,490 valid votes and lost the seat. The party fought all the four Vidhan Sabha seats in the District and lost them. In Nohata and Damoh constituencies the party candidates got 11,870 and 2,425 valid votes, respectively, while the candidates of the Party secured only 683 and 8,581 valid votes in Hatta and Patharia constituencies.

The Jan Sangh did not contest the Damoh Parliamentary seat in the Mid-term Election of 1971. It, however, set up three candidates for Vidhan Sabha in the Fifth General Elections, 1972. It secured 534 valid votes in Nohata, 10,438 in Hatta and 12,125 in Patharia constituencies and lost all.

Hindu Maha Sabha

A branch of the Hindu Maha Sabha was established at Damoh in 1938. It is taking interest in the social and political activities of the District. It is affiliated to the State Hindu Maha Sabha, Bhopal.

In the First General Elections of 1951-52, Hindu Maha Sabha set up a candidate only for the Legislative Assembly constituency of Damoh. The candidate lost the seat, securing only 32 per cent of the valid votes. The Party did not fight the General Elections of 1957. In the General Elections of 1962, the Sabha put up two candidates for the Hatta and Patharia Legislative Assembly constituencies, but lost them having secured 1,875 or 9.2 per cent and 865 or 5.4 per cent valid votes, respectively. The party absented itself in the General Elections of 1967.

Forward Block

A candidate of the Forward Block (Ruikar Group) was one of the contestants in the General Elections of 1951-52 for Sagar Parliamentary seat. He secured only 2 per cent of the valid votes polled and lost the seat. The party did not participate in any of the subsequent General Elections.

Communist Party

A branch of the Communist Party of India was established at Damoh in 1944. In the General Elections of 1957, the party for the first time set up a candidate for the Legislative Assembly Constituency of Damoh and lost the seat, having secured only 13.13 per cent of the valid votes polled. Again, in the Third General Elections of 1962, the party set up a candidate for Damoh Legislative Assembly constituency, and lost the seat securing only 6.9 per cent of the valid votes polled. The party did not contest any seat in the District in the General Elections of 1967. A candidate of the party contested from the Nohata Vidhan Sabha constituency during the Fifth General Elections, 1972. He got 6,747 valid votes, but lost.

Socialist Party

A district branch of the party was organised at Damoh in October, 1947. Socialist Party candidates fought Sagar and Jabalpur North Parliamentary seats and lost them after securing 23,349 and 22,897 out of 1,57,374 and 1,76,914 total valid votes, respectively. The party candidates contested Tendukheda and one seat of Double-Member Hatta constituencies and, securing only 10,794 and 2,295 valid votes, lost them to the Congress candidates.

Praja Socialist Party

Subsequent period witnessed the merger of Krishak Mazdoor Praja Party and Socialist party. This united party was named as Praja Socialist Party. This party contested Hatta (unreserved) seat in the by-election caused by the death of a Congress member elected from here in 1951-52. The candidate lost the seat after securing 5,012 votes as against 9,106 valid votes secured by the Congress candidate. In the General Elections of 1957, the seat reserved for Scheduled Castes in Double-Member Sagar Parliamentary constituency was unsuccessfully contested by the party candidate. He secured 74,154 valid votes

as against 1,41,400 polled by the Congress candidates. The party did not contest any seat in the District in the General Elections of 1957, 1962 and 1967.

Samyukta Socialist Party

The Samyukta Socialist Party candidate fought Damoh Parliamentary seat in 1967 and lost it. He secured only 42,564 valid votes out of 2,63,448 polled in the constituency.

Scheduled Castes Federation

The Scheduled Castes Federation in 1957 set up its two candidates, one for Damoh and the other for one reserved seat of Double-Member Hatta Legislative Assembly constituencies. In the former the candidate secured 10.43 per cent, while in the latter he obtained only 5.79 per cent of valid votes.

Republican Party

In the General Elections of 1967 the Republican Party contested Nohata, Damoh and Hatta Vidhan Sabha constituency seats and lost all the three. The party candidates secured 2,654; 905 and 1,330 valid votes out of 41,445; 35,468 and 28,671 valid votes polled in these constituencies, respectively. Two candidates of the party (Kambhare group) fought the election for Vidhan Sabha in 1972 from Damoh and Hatta Constituencies. But both the candidates failed to win as they got only 696 and 4,120 valid votes, respectively.

Communist Party (Marxist)

A candidate of the party contested the Damoh Vidhan Sabha seat in 1972. He got 614 valid votes and lost.

Newspapers

Kartavya, a Hindi weekly, made its first appearance from Damoh in August, 1948. It was devoted to the cause of cultivators and as such its circulation was mainly among the cultivators. But the weekly ceased in October, 1951, and was restarted as a daily from 15th August, 1953. The paper later on assumed the form of weekly in September, 1954. Subsequently, the weekly became a daily in 1957, again to become a weekly in 1964.

Janasandesha was another Hindi weekly to appear from Damoh in September, 1948. Originally it was started for the propagation of the idealogies of the Congress Party. The weekly ceased publication in October, 1951. From 12th October, 1954, it again resumed its publication as an independent paper. The paper finally stopped its publication from August, 1955.

In September 1948 *Taran Sandesh*, a Hindi fortnightly devoted to religion and philosophy, was started at Damoh, but it ceased publication in June, 1951. One more Hindi fortnightly, propagating religion and philosophy, called *Vir Sandesh*, commenced publication in 1952 at Damoh, but it appears to have continued only for a short time.

Bekar Bandhu, a Hindi monthly of Damoh, devoted to business matters was first published in December, 1952. However, the monthly ceased publication in 1953.

In October 1957, a Hindi weekly called *Naya Rasta* made its appearance at Damoh and ceased its publication in November, 1957. *Garjana*, also a Hindi weekly of Damoh, started in August, 1961 and ceased after two issues. A Hindi quarterly, *Sahakari Suman*, made its appearance at Damoh in 1965. *Damoh-Sandesh* and *Bundeli-Garjan*, Hindi weeklies, are being published from 1959. A Hindi daily *Dainik Ajai* has also started publication from 1970 from the District. Other papers, such as *Kartavya* (Hindi daily), *Jana Sewak* (Hindi weekly), *Sahakari Suman* (Hindi monthly) and *Alok* (Hindi fortnightly) are also being published from the District . Two other papers, namely, *Lahu Aur Pani* and *Purna Bharat* were also published, but now ceased publication.

The reading public of the District mostly rely on the newspapers and periodicals published outside the District, within or without the State of Madhya Pradesh. Those which are in common circulation in the District are named below.

Among the dailies figure *Hitavada*, *Madhya Pradesh Chronicle* (both English dailies from Bhopal), *Free Press Journal* (Bombay), *Nav Bharat*, *Jabalpur Samachar*, *Nai Dunia*, *Yug Dharma* (all the four Hindi dailies from Jabalpur), *Nav Bharat Times*, *Hindustan* and *Vir Arjun* (all three Hindi dailies from Delhi). As regards weeklies, mention may be made of *Hindustan* (Delhi), *Dharma Yug*, *Blitz*, *Urvashi*, *Screen*, *Illustrated Weekly* (all from Bombay), *Krishak* (Bhopal), *Madhya Pradesh Sandesh* and *Gram Sudhar* (both from Gwalior).

Sarita, *Navaneet*, *Chanda Mama*, *Parag*, *Chitrapat*, *Nai Kahania* and *Maya* are among the monthlies which are in circulation in the District.

Voluntary Social Service Organisations

The last quarter of the 18th century witnessed the rise and growth of some voluntary social service organisations at Damoh. Available information relating to these organisations is given below.

Bharat Scouts and Guides Association, Damoh

A branch of the Bharat Scouts and Guides Association was started in the District near about 1920 to achieve its aim of social service and character-building. The association is affiliated to the State branch. It is a registered body and its branches are functioning in practically all the schools, particularly in the middle schools of the District. The movement has expanded with the increase in number of educational institutions in the District. In 1964, the total number of Scouts and Guides in the District was nearly 5,000.

The organisation is affiliated to the All India Harijan Sevak Sangh, New Delhi. It was formed in 1933 when Mahatma Gandhi, while on a visit to the town, laid the foundation of the organisation on 2nd December, 1933 at a Harijan temple in Gadram Mohalla of the town. Since then the organisation remained dormant, but became vigorously active from 1958. It carried on useful work to eradicate untouchability and to create social consciousness among the neglected sections of the society. The body arranges cultural and literary programmes, lectures, social gatherings, etc. Its scope of work is all round welfare of Harijan community.

District Harijan Sevak Sangh, Damoh

The Anathashram was established in 1934 by the Anathashrama Dana Prabandhak Sabha pioneered by some citizens at Damoh. It was registered in the same year under the Registration of Society Act, 1860 (XXI of 1860). The aim of this institution is to bring up and educate the orphans and to provide shelter to the deserted women. The Anathashram also celebrates the marriages and other *sanskaras* of the grown up boys, girls and deserted or rescued women residing in it. The orphans are trained in certain handicrafts, such as carpentry, knitting of *niwar*, etc., to make them self-supporting. It has a building of its own on the plots granted to it by the local municipality, and it receives grants-in-aid from the Madhya Pradesh Social Welfare Board, Bhopal, Janapad Sabha, Damoh, and Municipal Committee, Damoh, and donations from the public. The average annual number of beneficiaries is twenty.

Anathashram, Damoh

The District Branch of the All India Organisation called Bharat Sevak Samaj was established in the town in 1955. It has its branches at all tahsils and blocks. The main object of Bharat Sevak Samaj is to create an atmosphere for the proper execution of planning and development activities of the country. It holds two types of camps every year. The first type of camp is organised for labour welfare and social service, while the second is held for popularising the scheme of family planning. In each camp nearly 50 persons participate and about 1,000 persons of the District are being helped every year in different ways.

Bharat Sevak Samaj, Damoh

The organisation was established on 1st April, 1958 at Tendukheda. It is an affiliated body of State Social Welfare Board, Bhopal. It is a cosmopolitan organisation engaged in economic, social and physical welfare of the people. It runs eight *Balwadis*, 36 *Mahila Samitis* and three dispensaries at various centres in the District. Average number of beneficiaries taking advantage or being directly helped annually is nearly 400.

Project Implementation Committee, Tendukheda

With the aim of achieving physical and educational welfare of the boys and girls of Damoh, this registered Society started a Girls Degree College, a Night Degree College, a Higher Secondary School and Jawahar Bal Sadan, all at Damoh.

Rashtriya Jain Educational Society, Damoh

Bharatiya Gramina Mahila Samiti, Damoh

This registered Samiti was established at Damoh in 1961. The main object of the Samiti is to render help to poor and needy women and children. With this aim in view it runs a *Bal Mandir*, a tailoring class, an embroidery class, a ladies' club and a library. The Samiti also takes interest in the family planning sector. The *Bal Mandir*, ladies club and tailoring class were started in 1962, while the embroidery class and library were organised in 1966. It started its activities in the family planning sector in 1962. The members of the Samiti go into the villages to propagate the family planning scheme and medical help.

The Samiti receives grant and donations from the public for all these activities. In 1955 the ladies' club of the Samiti collected and contributed a sum of Rs. 5,501 to the Prime Minister's Fund. It also collected about 60 grams of gold in 1962 and donated it to the National Defence Fund.

CHAPTER XIX

PLACES OF INTEREST

Balakot (23° 40′*N*; 79° 20′*E*)

About 19 kilometres to the south-west of Damoh lies this village among the hills called the Balakote range. The name of this place is derived from the word *Kot*, meaning a stone rampart, which once encircled the village but now lying in ruins. It was the seat of Rao Takhat Singh of the Kerbania Lodhis. The family of Takhat Singh took part in the Revolt of 1857. The village was taken by a detachment of troops and the local fort was destroyed.

The population of this place was 720 in 1901, while in 1961 it increased to 1967. The area of the village was 1,471.41 hectares. Among the modern amenities mention may be made of a primary school and a branch post-office.

Bandakpur (23° 52′ *N*; 79° 35′*E*)

A railway station on the Damoh-Katni section of the Central Railway, this village of Damoh Tahsil lies at a distance of 14.4 km. east of Damoh. The famous Jageshwara temple is located in this village. It is said that in 1811 A.D. Lord Jageshwar or Shiva appeared before the Maratha Governor of Damoh, Balaji Diwan, in a dream and intimated to him that he would manifest himself at Bandakpur. An image of Mahadeva was subsequently found there and was ceremoniously installed by the Diwan in a temple. Two other temples were subsequently erected to house goddess Parvati and Nandi, the carrier of Shiva. On Vasant Panchami day a large fair meets near the temple premises drawing a big crowd of pilgrims and traders from far and near. It lasts for eight days. People say that if the crowd exceeds 1,25,000 persons, the two flags planted near the temples of Shiva and Parvati bend over and meet. The management of the fair is a hereditary office in the family of Balaji Diwan, which pays the sanitary charges but exacts no dues. Three-fourths of the offerings made by the pilgrims go to this family and the rest to the officiating priest. When a pilgrim offers any prayer, he makes an impression of his hand, with fingers upwards, in red ochre. If the prayer is fulfilled he comes over again to the temple and makes another hand impression with fingers downwards. The custom is known as *hathi prasad.* If a person begets a child after praying for it, the child is brought before the deity for the first hair-cut and the hair is dedicated to the god. Two smaller fairs are also held at Bandakpur on the day of Shivaratri and on Til Sankranti in January but with smaller gatherings. Near the temple there is a well, called Amrati, meaning a container of *amrita* or nectar. The story associated with this is that, once the daughter of a goldsmith,

Jageshwara Temple

crushed in the crowd, fell into the well and was drowned. Her body was rescued and kept in the temple overnight. According to a sign given in dream devotional songs were sung and prayers were offered round the well for the whole night. At day-break the girl was restored to life. About one and a half km. away from this village there is a deserted place called Maria Ganji, containing several large stones with illegible inscriptions. The area of Bandakpur is 510.09 hectares and according to the Census of 1961 its population was 1,484 as against 1,040 in 1901. The village contains a branch post-office, a middle school and an *ayurvedic* dispensary.

Bangaon (24° 00′*N*., 79° 30′*E*)

A village of Hatta Tahsil, it lies at a distance of about 8 km. from Luhari, and 17 km. from Hatta on Damoh-Hatta road. The river Kopra flows near the village. There is an old temple of Shiva on the river bank, stated to be of the Chandella period. A fair, named Siddha Baba ka Mela is held on the 16th of January. It has a village panchayat, a branch post-office, and a primary school. The village is electrified. It had an area of 1257.35 hectares and a population of 701 in 1961. The weekly market meets here on every Wednesday.

Shiva Temple

Batiagarh (24° 5″*N*; 79° 20′*E*)

A village of Hatta Tahsil, Batiagarh lies at a distance of about 34 km. north-west of Damoh. It is situated on the bank of a small stream called Baink or Judi, an affluent of the Sonar river. Batiagarh was the headquarters of a *pargana* under the Muhammadans and, subsequently, the residence of a Maratha *Amil*.

Location

The place has yielded inscriptions, some of which are important. One record is dated in Vikrama era 1385, corresponding to 1328 A.D. It refers to Jallal Khoja, a local Muhammadan Governor at Batihadam (the present Batiagarh). The record states that Jallal was the representative of Hisamuddin, son of Julachi, who was appointed Commander of the Kharapara armies and Governor of Chedi country by Sultan Mahmud of Yoginipura or Delhi. The date of the record suggests that the Sultan referred to may be Sultan Muhammad Tughlaq (1325-1351 A.D.) of Delhi. The importance of this Sanskrit inscription lies in its mention of Kharapara armies, who are apparently identical with the Kharaparikas of Allahabad pillar Inscription of Samudragupta of the 4th century A.D. Another big Sanskrit inscription of the place is in a mutilated condition. It contains three or four verses which are exactly the same as in the former inscription. It also mentions Sultan Mahmud, his commander Julachi and a local Governor (name is not clear) and his agent Kallal. It is dated in Samvat thirteen hundred and odd and the date is given twice. A Persian inscription dated A.D. 1324 records the foundation of a palace, in the reign of Tughlaq king Ghiasuddin (A.D. 1320-1325).

Epigraphic Records

Still one more Sanskrit inscription refers to the planting of a garden by the commander of the Kharapara armies in the Chedi country. His son's name was Malik Fatahkhan. Since this contains about three verses, which were copied from the inscription referred to as the first, this undated record seems to have been written after A.D. 1328. Besides these, the village has some *sati* inscriptions. A large fair lasting for three days is held here on the occasion of Shivaratri in February/March.

Amenities

The village has primary, middle and higher secondary schools, a rural health centre, veterinary hospital, family planning centre, police-station, post-office, a branch of a Co-operative Land Mortgage Bank, village panchayat, *balwadi* and a *gosadan*. The village, which is also the headquarters of a Development Block, covers an area of 1,201.49 hectares and its population in 1961 was 1,757 as against 800 in 1901.

Botarai (23° *55'N*; 79° *5'E*)

About 33 km. away from Damoh town and 6 km. from Patharia is situated this village of Damoh Tahsil. A *kuchcha* road connects Botarai with Patharia.

Old Remains

An annual fair meets near this place on the occasion of Makar Sankranti. It is attended by about 3,000 persons. A *sati* pillar with the figure of a *sati* is located in Botarai. It contains ruins of an old fort. Civic amenities include a primary school, a primary health sub-centre, a maternity and child welfare wing, dispensary and a semi-government godown. The village comes under the Patharia Development Block. The area of this place is 372.311 hectares, inhabited by 2,051 persons in 1961.

Chopra (*Chaubisa*) (23° 45'*N*; 79° 25'*E*)

A small village of Damoh Tahsil, Chopra lies at a distance of 37 km. from Damoh. The nearest main road from this village is Damoh-Jabalpur Road. Persons can travel on this road upto the village Simri with which Chopra is connected by a tolerably good road.

Jain temple And Inscriptions

Chopra was formerly known as Chopada Padi or Chandi Chopada. It contains an old Jain temple. On the pedestal of its huge image an inscription of nine lines, pertaining to the reign of Narasimha Deva, dated what appears to be Samvat 1313, is carved. On a wall of the same temple another inscription is found, dated in Samvat 1554. The record refers to Sultan Gayas-Shah of Mandogarh (Mandu). It is also stated that the place was in Damanakanagara Mukta (*jagir*) which appears to be the old name of Damoh.

The weekly market meets here on Wednesday, while the annual Chandi Mela meets in the month of Kartik. About 3,000 persons assemble in the village on this occasion. A middle school, an *ayurvedic* dispensary and a post-office are

functioning in this place. It had an area of 283.280 hectares and a population of 1,404 persons in 1961.

Damoh (23° 50′*N*; 79° 27′*E*)

This headquarters town of the District is situated 105.6 km. from Jabalpur and 76.8 km. from Sagar by road. It is also a railway station on the Bina-Katni railway line of the Central Railway.

Persian Inscription

The town is said to have taken its name from Damayanti, the wife of king Nala of Hindu mythology. It appears to be an old town and seems to have gained some importance in the 14th century under the Mahammadan supremacy over the region. The old fort (now disappeared) of the town yielded a Persian inscription dated 1383 A.D. Another Persian record, stated to have been fixed in the western gate of the fort, refers to the construction of breast-work opposite the western gate of the fort by Ghiyasuddin in 1480 A.D. It mentions the name of Khalji Ghiyasuddin of Malwa, who ruled between 1475-1500 A.D. The third inscription, dated in 1512 A.D. (Vikram Samvat 1570) refers to the reign of the last Khalji king of Malwa, Sultan Mahmudshah, son of Nadirshah. This Hindi record is a proclamation of remission of certain fees levied in the town of Damoh, which is mentioned as Damauvanagara.

During Akbar's reign the territory of the District was included in the *subah* of Malwa and an *Amil* was posted at Damoh. In his central towns, Akbar used to build two houses, Dharampur and Khairpur, for the temporary lodging of the Hindu and Muhammadan religious mendicants, respectively. The name of the former house seems to have survived in the modern locality of Dharampura in the town where Hindu mendicants apparently seem to have settled down.[1] Subsequently, Damoh was the seat of a Maratha Governor. Under the British rule the headquarters of the District was fixed at Hatta and was subsequently removed to Damoh in 1838.

Old Sculptures

Most of the old temples of the place were long ago destroyed by the Muhammadans and their materials were used for the construction of a fort which too was destroyed in subsequent period. A number of old sculptures including two well-carved figures of Shiva and Parvati and another standing figure, probably of Vishnu, were later on collected on a platform near the Phutera tank. Besides, a few inscribed slabs of stone, a large number of carved stones and images and a fine doorway of a temple are collected in the Collector's garden. Of the local temples, Jatashankar temple at the foot of a hillock on the outskirts of the town is most famous. On the hillock is located the Circuit House. Some tombs of Muhammadan saints are located in and near the town. One of them is popularly believed to be of Saiyad Masrud,

1. It was also a separate village held by the Bairagis during the 30 years Settlement.

the General of Mahmud of Ghazni, who really lies buried at Bahraich. The town also contains two old mosques of the Muhammadan period.

Tanks

This municipal town contains several tanks, the largest being the Phutera tank to the north of the town. It was improved and bathing *ghats* were constructed in 1879. The Purena tank was built during the Muhammadan period. The Diwanji ki Talaiya is named after its builder, Balaji Diwan, a Maratha Governor whose wife became a *sati* on its banks. Bela Tal, on the outskirts of the town, beside the Damoh-Jabalpur road, is also a large-sized tank. There is an island in the middle of the tank which is connected with the bank by a narrow path-way for enjoying scenic beauty.

Trade And Industries

Damoh is the main trade centre of the District and is a fairly important commercial town. As regards the industries of the place, there are a few *bidi* factories and oil mills, while the important household industries of Damoh include *bidi*-rolling, gold and silver smithy, brass and bell-metal industry, articles of split bamboo, shoe making, earthen pottery, etc. In respect of trade, it is one of the important wholesale and retail grain-marketing centres of Jabalpur Division. A number of betel-leaf gardens are situated in the neighbourhood of Damoh and the leaf is exported. A weekly market is held here on every Sunday. A weekly cattle-market is also held on the same day. Annual fairs, managed by the local municipality, are held here twice, one on the Nagpanchami day (August) and the other known as Jatashankar Fair in January. Both the fairs are attended by about 6,000 persons each.

Amenities

Being the headquarters of both the Tahsil and District of the same name, the town contains usual tahsil and district offices. For imparting education to boys and girls there are several primary, middle and higher secondary schools, Government Arts and Science College, Women's College, a polytechnic and a kindergarten school. There are three hospitals, a veterinary hospital, a municipal charitable *aushadhalaya* (dispensary), post and telegraph office with telephone facilities, police-station, district poultry unit, two co-operative credit societies, one multi-purpose society four public reading rooms and three public libraries. The municipal town covers an area of 15.61 square km. and it was populated by 59,993 persons in 1971 as against 13,355 persons in 1901.

Archaeology Around Damoh

About 21 km. to the east of Damoh there is a small village named Chhitra, containing the ruins of old temples seven or eight in number. Their architecture seems to be of about 12th century A.D. Another village called Rond stands at a distance of about 30 km. from Damoh to its south-east. The village contains an old flat-roofed small temple. An image with folded hands adorns the middle part of its door-frame and images of Ganga and Yamuna are carved on each side. The site also contains ruins of some other structures. *Sati* pillar of the place is dated in

Samvat 1383 (A.D. 1326) and refers to the reign of Mahmud Shah Tughlaq, who had ascended the throne of Delhi in 1325 A.D. The name of the village is mentioned as Rondi.

Fatehpur (24° 10′*N*; 79° 30′*E*)

Lying 43.2 km. north of Damoh and 14.4 km. from Hatta, Fatehpur is a large village of Hatta Tahsil. On the bank of a deep stream called Patar, which borders the village, there is a rock on which there are carved squares with paintings. These rock-paintings are said to be of the prehistoric period. The colour of the paintings is fast.

Rock Paintings

Within a couple of kilometres from Fatehpur there is a village named Piparia, containing war memorial pillars. It appears that in the 12th century A. D. some battle was fought at the place and five memorial pillars, depicting the scenes of the fight, were raised on the spot where the warriors fell. Of these five pillars two are inscribed, and they record the date as Friday, the 11th of dark fortnight of Ashvina in Samvat 1198 corresponding to Friday, the 29th August, 1141 A.D., on which day a Rashtrakuta king, Mahamandalika Ranaka Jayasimha, fought with prince Hemasimha. Jayasimha is depicted as pursuing the enemy. He has killed a prince who is lying on the ground, while Maharajaputra Gopaladeva with spear in his hand is after prince Ranashaila. Another prince, Damodara, is shown as riding a huge horse named Ghotak Simhamani and chasing four princes, who are on their clean heels. One of them is down on the ground.[1]

War Memorials

About six km. north of village Fatehpur, there is a strong fort named Jatashankar. The fort was built in 1643 by Fatehsingh, who was a revenue officer at this headquarters village of the Raja of Shahgarh and after whom the village is named Fatehpur. Two inscriptions found at Jatashankar are in Rajasthani and Sanskrit, the one being a free translation of the other. The record recites that one Vijayapala of Vishvamitra *gotra* conquered a great hero named Kal, apparently the man in charge of the fort. Further, it describes the exploits of Harsharaja, the grandson of Vijayapala; and Vijayasimha, the son of Harsharaja. The absence of any regal title indicates that these conquerors were perhaps commanders of armies and they left this record as a mark of their raid. Possibly they may have been related to the Guhila princes of Mewar.

Jatashankar Fort

Weekly market is held at Fatehpur on every Thursday. It has primary and middle schools, maternity and child welfare centre, and a post-office. The village covers an area of 775.04 hectares and in 1961 its population was 1,730.

Harat Khas (23°30′*N*; 79°40′*E*)

A small village in Hatta Tahsil, it is situated at a distance of 4.8 km. from

1. Hiralal, *Inscriptions in the C. P. and Berar*, p. 56.

Hatta towards north-west. The river Sonar flows towards its left creating a small water-fall in close proximity.

Harat was a place of considerable importance during the regime of the Bundelas. There are some ruined Muhammadan tombs. Recently a well-cemented gravel has yielded a few early palaeolithic tools *in situ* thereby proving the hoary antiquity of the village.[1] The population of this village was 350 in 1901 and 365 in 1961, and the area 726.411 hectares.

Hatta (24°5'*N*; 79°35'*E*)

This headquarters town of the tahsil of the same name is 36.4 km. north of Damoh with which it is connected by road. It is situated on the bank of the river Sonar, the bed of which here is deep and unbroken by rocks and affords picture sque scenery.

Origin of the Name

According to tradition, it has derived its name from one Gond king named Hattesingh of 11th century A.D. who is associated with the foundation of the place. Probably the name is derived from Hata, a Sanskrit term[2] meaning a market place. Ancient remains are said to exist here in the shape of mounds near the river. There is also an old fort in ruins. It was built in the 17th century by the Bundelas and was subsequently enlarged and improved by the Marathas. It is built of rubble and mortar and has immense towers sloping upwards. The towers and walls are crowned with usual battlements. The fort is surrounded by a moat, partly artificial and partly natural, which flows into the Sonar river. The ruins inside the fort are of a large palace, the great gateway of which still stands in a somewhat good order. The entrance is of the usual Muhammadan pattern.

Chandi Devi Temple

There is an old temple of Chandi Devi here which is held very sacred. It is much resorted to during the epidemics. A pious lady of the former *malguzar's* family constructed here a temple of Gauri Shankar dedicated to Mahadeva and assigned Hatta with four other villages for its maintenance. A fair is held there on Shivaratri day and is largely attended. She also constructed fine flights of steps leading down the river Sonar. A very large number of *sati* pillars are seen on the road side. A few of them are dated. But none of them is more than 450 years old.

Formerly, there was considerable hand-weaving industry in the town, but now it has declined. The town is still known for its brass and bell-metal industry. Bi-weekly markets are held on every Friday and Sunday. The town is electrified.

This municipal town has schools for primary, middle and higher secondary education, primary health centre, family planning centre, veterinary hospital,

1. Ancient India, 1961, p. 5.

2. Hiralal, *Damoh Deepak*, p. 117.

Amenities

cattle-breeding extension unit, post-office with telegraph and public call facilities and police station. The town covers an area of 5.90 sq. km. and in 1971 its population increased to 12,103 from 4,365 of 1901. In the town there is a small *kund* known as Ganga Jhira which never dries up. A fair is held here on the third day (*tij*) after Diwali. There is a beautiful water-fall on the Sonar river, known as Bhadbhada about five km. west of Hatta. On Sankranti day a big fair is held here.

Old Images at Bari Kanoda and Muhanna

About 20.4 km. north-west of Hatta, there is a village named Bari Kanoda. There are ruins of mud-fort constructed by the Raja of Shahgarh. A shrine probably built in 12th century A.D. contains idols of Hindu deities. The newly constructed temples contain many images of Shiva-Parvati and these appear to be beautiful and ancient. Images of Brahma and Chandi Devi are also in the village. Some stones, apparently warrior memorials, with names of warriors incribed and dated in Samvat 1342, 1350and 1360 (A.D. 1285 to 1303) are located in the village in addition to several *sati* pillars. There is a big tank built by the Chandelas. A ruined summer country house, built by a Bundela *Amil* is also there. About 32 km. away from Hatta there is a village called Muhanna containing a beautiful small temple dedicated to Shiva. It was probably built in eleventh or twelfth century A.D. Some parts of the temple are damaged. Beautiful images carved on the door are in their original state.

Hindoria (23°50'*N*; 79°30'*E*)

This is one of the largest villages of the District. It is 16 km. to the north-east of the District headquarters, about five km. from Bandakpur railway station and is connected by a metalled road with Damoh.

Inscriptions

Within two km. there is a deserted place, which has yielded an inscription dated Vaishakha Sudi 3, Thursday, Samvat 1344, corresponding to 17th April, 1287 A.D. on which date the gift was made. It refers to the reign of Bhojavarmadeva of Kalanjara under whom prince Vaghadeva was ruling. The inscription was recovered from Ishvarmau, the deserted quarter of Hindoria. "Under the status of Chandi, the name of that ubiquitous Jogi Magaradhwaja with the unvarying number 700 against his name, is inscribed." This indicates that this place was then of some importance so as to attract the above mentioned Jogi with his 700 disciples in 12th century[1] A.D. The same locality contains remains of old temples and many beautiful images of various Hindu divinities and Jain *Tirthankaras*.

Sati pillars

The village Hindoria also has several *sati* pillars, the oldest of which seems to be the one which is dated in Samvat 1113, corresponding to 1056 A.D. Besides, it contains many carved stones and remains of old temples. Subsequently. the Muhammadan rulers built a cenotaph, the gate-way of which is built with the jambs of a temple

1. Hiralal, *Inscriptions in the C. P. and Berar*, p. 62.

door-frame, bearing figures of the rivers Ganga and Yamuna with their vehicles crocodile and tortoise, respectively.

Events in 1857

The village played an important part during the days of the Uprising of 1857. It was the headquarters of Kishor Singh, one of the foremost laders of the rebels. His ancestor Budhasingh, popularly supposed to be the founder of this village, had constructed a small fort (1600 A.D.) on the top of a hill to the south of the village. When Kishor Singh joined the Revolt and raided the treasury at Damoh, the fort was stormed by a detachment of the British army from Sagar.

Local Products Amenities

The place is known for its betel-leaf gardens. On a small scale, there are cottage industries such as manufacturing of *bidi* and brass and bell-metal products. Weekly market is held here on every Saturday. The village is electrified. It has primary, middle and higher secondary schools, a maternity and child welfare centre, an *ayurvedic* dispensary, primary health centre, family planning centre, an outlying veterinary dispensary, post-office and police-station. Its area is 5,812.81 hectares and according to the Census of 1961 its population increased to 6,826 from 3,100 of 1901.

Kishunganj (23° 55'*N*; 79° 20'*E*)

A large village of Damoh Tahsil, it lies on the Batiagarh road at a distance of about 14.4 km. to the north-west of Damoh. The village derives its name from its founder Krishna Rao, who got it revenue free from the Marathas on condition of feeding all religious mendicants coming to the village. His descendants used to enjoy the proprietorship on a quit-rent grant of a quarter of the assessed revenue. The village possesses two tanks constructed during the Maratha period, with *pucca ghats* on all sides. There is also an old temple of Rama and a very old *baodi* (step-well), the steps of which are more than 4 metres in width, and two *sati* monuments.

Local Products

Formerly the village was reputed for its production of *al* or Indian madder. The cultivation could not ultimately withstand the effect of imported dyes. Manufacture of *bidi* is a flourishing cottage industry of Kishunganj. Brass and bell-metal articles are produced on a limited scale. A weekly market is held here on Wednesday. There are primary and middle schools, library and public reading-room, hospitals and dispensary and a branch post-office in Kishunganj, The place had a population of 2,040 and an area of 658.42 hectares in 1961. In 1901 the population was 1,500. The village is electrified.

Kundalpur (23° 65'*N*; 79° 40'*E*)

Lying in the south-east part of Hatta Tahsil. this small village is about 32 km. from Damoh on Patera road, on which buses ply.

It is so named probably because of its situation near the hill range which is practically circular in shape. This hill range encircles the large lake called Vardhamana Sagar. It appears that in ancient time the name of this hill range was Kundalgiri which is recorded in an ancient one-line inscription found on the plinth of a small cenotaph, situated in the premises of the oldest and the largest Digambar Jain temple on the hill.

Kundalpur has been since old days a very sacred place to the Jains of Digambar sect. In all there are 58 Digambar Jain temples. On the circular hill range stand 30 of these temples, all gleaming white. The remaining 28 temples are situated at the foot of the hill range and on the banks of Vardhamana Sagar. Most of the ancient temples have been renovated and reconstructed during the period of last three centuries.

The oldest and the largest of the 30 temples situated on the hill is in the middle of them. It enshrines a collosal red sandstone image of Jain *Tirthankara* which bears no emblem. This had created an uncertainty in respect of its identification with any one of the 24 Jain *Tirthankaras*. Popularly it was supposed to be of Mahavira or Vardhaman, the last of the 24 Jain *Tirthankaras*. This popular belief had probably given the name Vardhamana Sagar to the lake. The archaeologists of 19th century identified this colossal image with Neminatha, the 22nd Jain *Tirthankara*.[1] But certain features like hair locks of the head touching the shoulders, etc., confirm that the image is of Rishabhanatha, the 1st Jain *Tirthankara*, as this feature is mostly found in other well recognised ancient statues of only Rishabhanatha. Secondly, on both sides of this image, images of *Yaksha* and *Yakshini* of Rishabhanatha are noticed. The image is locally known as Bada Baba. It is about 3.5 metres in height and in seated posture. The premises of this temple contain 3 colossal Jain images brought from Kunwarpur village. Localities lying nearby known as Rukmini Matha, Barrat, etc., also had some Jain temples now lying in utter ruins. The beautiful ancient images of these localities were long ago brought and enshrined in temples of Kundalpur. Some sculptures depicting 23rd Jain *Tirthankara* Parshvanatha with his *Yaksha* and *Yakshini*, etc., are still lying at Rukmini Matha. It is said that even the image of Rishabhanatha was brought here from the ruined Jain temple of Barrat.

The main interest of this picturesque place lies in the beautiful huge images of Rishabhanatha and two of Parshvanatha in standing posture. The latter are installed on either side of the former. These are probably of 6th or 7th century A.D. On the door of this temple there is an inscription of 24 lines put up during the reign of Maharaja Chhatrasal. The record refers to the repair works of the temple at Mandirtila (old name of Kundalpur), started by Suchandragana and completed in Samvat 1757 (A.D. 1700) by Brahmachari Nemichandra, with the donations they received for this work. It is believed that on the completion of repair works Maharaja Chhatrasal, who also contributed for these works, attended

1. Archaeological Survey of India, Vol. VII, p. 58.

the celebrations at Kundalpur. In the premises of the temple on a raised platform there are two footprints about 0.152 metres in length and covered by a cenotaph. The inscription *Kundalgirau Shri Shridhara Swami* at the bottom of the platform induced the belief that probably Shri Shridhara Swami the last of the Kevalins (Omniscient) who flourished in the fifth century B.C. attained *Nirvana* (liberation or salvation) at Kundalpur, originally called Kundalgiri. The fact that Shridhara Swami attained *Nirvana* at Kundalgiri is explicitly mentioned in *Tiloyapannati*, an ancient Prakrit work by Yati Vrishabha. Kundalgiri as one of the *Nirvana Kshetras* finds mention in *Dashabhakti* by Swami Pujyapada of the fifth or sixth century A.D. and in Prakrit *Nivyuikandam*. If our Kundalpur is the same as ancient Kundalgiri then it is one of the most ancient and sacred *Nirvana Kshetras* of the Jains. On another small temple a date of Samvat 1505 (1444 A.D.) is given. In honour of the deity a large annual fair of the Jains is held on the 15th (bright) of Magh (January/February).

Near the Vardhamana lake are situated two old Hindu temples of the single slab and flat-roofed pattern. These temples may probably be attributed to 7th century A.D. One of the temples is empty while the other has a standing figure of Vishnu probably of some later date.

The village covers an area of 442.12 hectares. It has a primary school. Its population decreased from about 400 persons in 1901 to 387 in 1961.

Luhari (24° 5′ *N*; 79° 30′ *E*)

Old Remains

A pretty big village of Hatta Tahsil, Luhari lies at a distance of about 10 km. from Hatta and 22 km. from Damoh. The village has an old temple, constructed after the fashion of a *math* and a solitary gate of an old fortress. These are believed to have been constructed during the reign of the Gond kings. The modern amenities include electricity, branch post-office and primary and middle schools. A weekly market meets on Thursdays. Apart from agriculture, people are engaged in *bidi* making. There are gram and nyaya panchayats in the village. In 1961 it had an area of 1892.311 hectares and a population of 1476.

Madiado (24° 5′*N*; 79°25′*E*)

This important large village in Hatta Tahsil is situated about 19 km. north of its tahsil headquarters. A small stream called Jogidabar flows on its border. The name of the village seems to have been derived from *marhiah*, a small temple and *doh*, a pool.

Old Fort

It has a ruined fort containing a summer-house, formerly used as a residence by the kings of Charkhari to whom the village belonged till 1860, when it was exchanged for some territories in Hamirpur in Uttar Pradesh. The approach path of the fort has recently been widened cleaning the debris.[1] Madiado was the headquarters of a sub-division comprising 360 villages under the Gond king Sangram

1. Indian Archaeology— A Review, 1956-57, p. 52.

Shah. A fierce battle between Jagat Singh, a nephew of king Chhatrasal, and Bahlalkhan took place at the village.

Amenities

Cottage industries, such as production of edible fats and oils, manufacturing of *bidi*, earthenware pottery and leather shoes are located here. It contains primary and middle schools, *ayurvedic* dispensary, outlying veterinary dispensary, maternity and child welfare centre and post office. The area of the village is 1,655.46 hectares and its population in 1961 increased to 1,636 persons from 1,500 in 1901.

Magron (23° 50′*N*; 79° 30′ *E*)

A small village of Hatta Tahsil, Magron is 12.8 km. away from the tahsil headquarters on the Hatta Batiagrah Road towards west. The village possesses two old temples. These are said to have been constructed by the Gond rulers. A largely attended weekly market is held here on Saturday. There are primary and middle schools and a branch post-office. It had a population of 1323 in 1961 as against 550 in 1901. It covers an area of 668.54 hectares.

Narsinghgarh (23° 55′*N*; 79° 20′*E*)

Lying on the right bank of the river Sonar, the small village of Narsinghgarh in Damoh Tahsil is about 19 km. north of the tahsil headquarters town on Batiagarh road.

Sati pillar

On the left bank of the Sonar there is an inscribed *sati* pillar dated in Samvat 1543 corresponding to 1486 A.D. It refers to the reign of Gayasuddin Shah Khalji of Malwa and testifies that he ruled over the region in that year. Under Muhammadan supremacy Narsinghgarh was the headquarters town of a Diwan or Governor. Shah Taiyab, one of these Governors, built here a fort and a mosque which are now in ruined condition.

During the period of Maratha ascendency it was the headquarters of the *pargana* of the same name. The fort built by the Marathas was subsequently destroyed to some extent by the British troops during the days of the Great Revolt of 1857, when Shahgarh rebels took shelter in the fort. The village occupies an area of 866.16 hectares. Its population decreased from 500 in 1901 to 278 in 1961.

Nohta (23° 40′*N*; 19° 30′*E*)

This large village of Damoh tahsil lies about 21 km. to the south-east of the tahsil headquarters on the Jabalpur road near the junction of a small stream, the Guraiya, with the river Bearma.

This place must have been of considerable importance in the past. It is believed that the Chandel kings had their seat of government here, when they

ruled over the District in 12th century A.D. A number of sites

Archaeological Importance

of temples are scattered in and around the village. There is a beautiful temple of Shiva. It is about two kilometres to the south of the village on the road. It consists of a shrine, hall and porch. These are fully decorated but in ruins. The statue of a boar, now standing on the Phutera tank at Damoh, was carried away from Nohta. The remains, especially the Jain figures found here and there, lead to the probable conclusion that there might have been one or more Jain temples here. On the occasion of Diwali in Kartik (October/November) an annual fair lasting for three days and attracting about three to four thousand persons is held here under the management of the village panchayat. A large weekly market is held on every Thursday. Manufacture of *bidi* is carried on a small scale. The village has schools for primary and middle education, a sub-health centre, dispensary, maternity and child welfare centre, police station and post-office. It had an area of 817.15 hectares and a population of 1,350 in 1961.

Raneh (24° 6'*N*; 79° 40'*E*)

About 13 km. east of Hatta lies this large village of Hatta Tahsil.

The village contains a very old well and a *murha* or a small building, said to be the seat of the then Governor of the place. The *murha* has an illegible inscription. Besides, the place has many tanks in which *singhara*

Old Remains

or water-nut is grown and a number of betel-vine gardens. The village also possesses many wells, but both the wells and tanks dry up in the hot season. There is a popular saying "*Vayan Kua aur Chaurasi tal, Tau Raneh men pani ko kal.*

(Raneh has 52 wells and 84 tanks but still there is scarcity of water).

Formerly the village was a centre of trade carried on pack-bullocks. Though hemp sacking, weaving and dyeing industry of the place have vanished the handloom weaving industry is still practised.

Weekly market is held at the village on Mondays. The place has schools for primary, middle and higher secondary education, and a post-office. The village area is 1,717.05 hectares. The population in 1961 was 2,848 as against 2,025 in 1901.

Rangir (24° 0'*N*; 79° 30'*E*)

A small village of Damoh tahsil, Rangir lies at a distance of 19.2 km. north of Damoh town. The village contains the ruins of an old fort, similar to that at Jatashankar. It was built during the reign of Chhatrasal for the

Old Fort

purpose of serving as a shooting-box. A station of the Trigonometrical Survey is located in this place at an altitude of 360.88 metres. The population of Rangir was 100 persons in 1901 which rose to 1552 in 1961. It has an area of about 460.12 hectares.

Sakor (24°10'*N*; 79°40'*E*)

It is a small village in Hatta tahsil, lying about 13 km. to the east of the tahsil headquarters. Extensive remains of old buildings in the form of bricks and stones are said to be buried in the fields around the village. These remains are noticed while digging the fields. Some broken images and a large *lingam* (phallus) of Shiva and remains of a Shiva temple, locally called *madha*, are noticed here. The temple is flat-roofed and square in size. The walls are plain but built of skilfully cut stones. A little carving is made on the door of the cell. The door-frame bears an image of the eight-armed goddess. Figuress of three women on each side of the goddess, a line of carving and a line of lion-heads rest on the upper part of the frame. Below the goddess bloom lotus flowers. Both the side-frames are adorned by the figures of six women on each side. On the sides of the lower frame somewhat large figures of women are seen. A small hall stands in front of the cell. The architecture of the temple seems to be of about fifth century A.D. There are two Shiva *lingas* inside the temple, one of which is quite large. The temple seems to have been constructed in sixth century A.D. There is also an old Hanuman temple on the outskirts of the village near an extensive open space. The temple is stated to have been constructed during the Maratha period.

Shiva Temple

In 1914 the site yielded 24 gold coins, a few bearing the name of Samudragupta, some with the name of Chandragupta and one having the name of Skandagupta. Sakor seems to have then occupied an important position. The temple has no inscription except one of a pilgrim, dated in Samvat 1361. The place also contains an old image of Mahavira. The village, having a primary school and a hospital occupies an area of 585.43 hectares. In 1961 its population was 556 persons.

Satsuma

Reputed as a sacred place, Satsuma lies on the bank of the Sonar, at a distance of about 9.6 km. from Hatta. It is situated on the road running from Hatta to Mariadoh. A hot spring issues from a nearby hill here and flows into the Sonar, which forms a deep pool near the village, affording an excellent scenic beauty. A story current here is that, once 7 lengths or bundles of rope were immersed to measure the depth of the spring but the bottom could not be touched. The village is said to have derived its present name Satsuma from this episode, for the meaning of "Satsuma" is 7 bundles of rope.

A Sacred Place

A fair is held on this spot in January on the occasion of Til-Sankrant, drawing a multitude of about 1,000 persons. It is managed by the gram panchayat. The fair is called *Budki* (diving day) because the bathers are to eat something while their heads are still under water. The pool is full of large-sized mahseer, which are not to be killed.

Singorgarh

Fort

About six km. from Singrampur stands a hill fort named Singorgarh in the south-east of Damoh Tahsil. The fort commands the Jabera pass which gives access to the road connecting Bhander with Kaimur ranges. It is popularly said that formerly there was a very large lake to the west of Singorgarh, covering an extensive area now occupied by 28 villages.

Legend

Legend says that the fort was constructed by Raja Ben Basor, so called because of his power of making a magic bamboo fan annually. Whenever he cut a piece off it, his enemies were simultaneously destroyed. Village Bansipur is said to have received the name because Raja Ben went there for fishing with his *bansi*, a fish-hook. The legend further says that the queen of the Raja was called Kamalawati as she too possessed the power of walking about the tank standing on a lotus leaf. Raja Ben took no tax from his subjects, but made bamboo fans and sold them.

History

As regards the builder of the fort nothing is precisely known. One version assigns the construction of it to the Chandel Raja Belo of Mahoba. According to Alexander Cunningham one Gaj Singh Pratihar or Parihar Rajput was its builder. In support of this view it is pointed out that there is a mention of "Gaj Singh Durg" in an eight-lined inscription, recorded on a square stone pillar standing on the top of the hill. "It seems probable that the fort must have been called 'Gaja Singh durga garh' or the hill-fortress of Gaj Singh. By dropping the first syllable and eliding the D of Durga, the name would have become simiply Singorgorh as it is written at present. The monolith is called *kirti stambha* or the pillar of fame. It was a set up in the Samvat year 1364 or A.D. 1307 on the Vijaya Dashami.[1] The lake nearby was also named Vijaya Sagar, probably because of the occasion of Vijaya Dashami. About a kilometre beyond this *kirti-stambha* there is a second monolith bearing a short inscription of two lines, in which it is referred to as *kirti stambha.*

It is believed that at the period of engraving the inscriptions this region was governed by the Pratihar Rajputs, the feudatories of the Kalachuris. At the close of the fifteenth century the Gond king Dalpat Shah of Garha-Mandla shifted his capital to Singorgarh which be enlarged and strengthened. After his death his queen Rani Durgawati acted as regent of his kingdom. She met the Mughal army led by Asaf Khan is 1564 on the wide plain of Singrampur near Singorgarh.

The fort of Singorgarh is said to have withstood a siege of nine months in the reign of Aurangzeb. As the remains of outer circumvallation are very extensive, the fort must have been of immense size. Nothing except a tower and some ruined stone reservoirs of the inner fort remains there. Two smaller towers are situated on neighbouring hills.

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1. Archaeological Survey of India, Vol. IX, pp. 49-50.

Singrampur (23°30'*N*; 79°45'*E*)

This village in Damoh Tahsil lies about 54 km. to the south-east of the tahsil headquarters on Jabalpur Road. The name is the corrupt form of Sangrampur meaning "the town of the battle." The first battle between the Garha-Mandla queen Rani Durgavati and Asaf Khan, the governor of Kara-Manikpur was fought here. The village contains a primary school and post-office. Its area is 461.69 hectares. The population in 1961 was 759 persons as against about 400 in 1901.

Sitanagar (24°00'*N*; 79°25'*E*)

On the bank of the Sonar, and near the junction of Kopra and Sonar rivers, lies this large village of Damoh Tahsil at a distance of 24 km. to the north of Damoh.

Old Temples

There is a temple at the confluence of the rivers, said to have been built by a Kalar woman, named Sita, from whom the village is supposed to have received its name. Two other old temples are there. One is dedicated to Rama and the other to Bihari or Krishna. According to a story there is quite a good number of stone buildings underneath the village but the door itself, leading to these, is blocked by a huge stone.

There are primary and middle schools, an *ayurvedic* dispensary, post-office and an outlying veterinary dispensary. It contains an area of 988.68 hectares. Its population increased from 1,500 persons in 1901 to 1636 in 1961.

Tejgarh (23°40'*N*; 79°20'*E*)

Ruined Fort

This medium-sized village of Damoh Tahsil is situated on the bank of the Guraiya river at a distance of 32 km. to the south of Damoh. The place is said to have derived its name from a local ruined fort, believed to have been originally built with rubble stone set in mud by one Teji Singh Lodhi, in the late seventeenth century. On the corner of the ruined fort there are eight tombs, five of which are in one row. Two tombs are within one enclosure and seem to be of important personages. These tombs are under an old Baniyan tree. On the western side, the fort wall is in sufficiently good condition of preservation. There is also a big hall measuring about 12×70 ft. A passage with steps leading to the river bank is visible, but the steps are now covered with rubble. It was the headquarters of a *pargana* of the same name consisting of 210 villages. From a number of ruined houses, scattered here and there it seems that once the village was a place of considerable importance. An annual fair meets here on the occasion of the Makar Sankranti. It lasts for seven days drawing a crowd of seven to eight thousand persons. It contains a police station house, branch post-office, middle school, maternity and child welfare centre and an *ayurvedic* dispensary. Its population in 1961 was 978 as against 1000 of 1901. It covered an area of 298.11 hectares.

APPENDICES

APPENDIX—A

(Statistical Tables)

APPENDIX—B

TABLE—I

Normals and Extremes of Rainfall (mm.)

Station	No. of years of data		Jan.	Feb.	Mar.	Apr.	May	Jun.	July	Aug.	Sep.	Oct.	Nov.	Dec.	Annual	Highest annual rain-fall as % of normal & year**	Lowest annual rain-fall as % of normal & year**	Heaviest rain-fall in 24 hours (Amount) (mm.)	Heaviest rain-fall in 24 hours Date
1	2		3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19
Hardua-marar	24	a	20.6	19.1	11.7	7.1	2.8	116.6	415.0	356.1	173.0	24.6	19.1	10.7	1176.4	148	55	205.7	1936, Jul. 20
		b	1.8	1.6	0.7	0.6	0.5	6.9	16.0	13.8	8.9	2.0	1.0	0.9	54.7	(1934)	(1941)		
Mala (Inspection Bungalow	24	a	25.9	18.3	15.2	5.8	4.1	119.6	469.1	374.1	206.5	29.5	19.8	7.9	1295.8	128	53	345.7	1952, Aug. 10
		b	2.2	1.8	0.8	0.5	0.4	7.0	17.7	15.3	8.8	2.2	1.0	0.7	58.4	(1934)	(1949)		
Damoh	50	a	18.8	13.7	10.4	5.3	9.4	118.4	375.2	380.0	186.9	29.5	17.5	7.9	1173.0	151	60	247.7	1900. Jul. 3
		b	1.7	1.5	1.0	0.7	1.0	7.0	16.5	15.2	9.2	1.7	1.0	0.7	57.2	(1926)	(1913)		
Hatta	50	a	22.3	15.7	11.2	6.9	8.1	118.6	391.7	363.0	208.5	38.9	10.5	10.4	1213.8	171	48	347.0	1926, Oct. 4
		b	1.8	1.4	1.0	0.7	1.0	6.4	15.9	14.0	8.3	2.1	0.9	0.8	54.3	(1946)	(1905)		
Jabera	37	a	20.1	11.9	13.7	5.1	7.9	135.6	433.1	403.9	194.6	39.9	12.9	7.6	1286.3	153	57	289.1	1926, Aug. 12
		b	1.6	1.2	1.0	0.5	0.9	7.6	17.0	16.1	8 6	2.2	0.9	0.6	58.2	(1926)	(1941)		
Tejgarh	13	a	8.4	20.8	14.0	4.8	3.6	99.8	305 6	357.9	182.9	24.9	16.8	5.3	1044.8	128	74	228.6	1891, Sep. 29
		b	1.1	1.7	1.1	0.5	0.2	6.4	13.7	14.5	8.3	1.6	0.9	0.7	50.7	(1901)	(1901)		
Damoh (District)		a	19.3	16.6	12.7	5.8	6.0	118.1	398.3	372.5	192.1	31.2	17.4	8.3	1198.3	152	55		
		b	1.7	1.5	0.9	0.6	0.7	6.9	16.1	14.8	8.7	2.0	0.9	0.7	56.5	(1926)	(1913)		

(a) Normal rainfall in mm. (b) Average number rainy days with rain of 2.5 mm. of more.

* Based on all available data upto 1959.

TABLE—II

Frequency of Annual Rainfall in the District (1901-1950)

Range in mm.	No. of years	Range in mm.	No. of years
601-700	2	1301-1400	10
701-800	2	1401-1500	5
801-900	2	1501-1600	1
901-1000	3	1601-1700	2
1001-1100	9	1701-1800	0
1101-1200	7	1801-1900	1
1201-1300	6		

TABLE—III

Yearly Rainfall and Rainy Days (1952-60)

Year	Yearly Rainfall in mm.	No. of Rainy Days
1952	1,387.2	49
1953	827.2	44
1954	1,144.4	57
1955	1,518.8	59
1956	1,423.5	53
1957	1,263.0	53
1958	1,344.7	59
1959	1,304.4	65
1960	1,176.3	57

Source: District Census Handbook, 1961, pp. 224-25.

TABLE—IV

Thanawise Number of Deaths caused by Snakes during the years 1956 to 1965

S. No.	Name of Police Stations	1956	1957	1958	1959	1960	1961	1962	1963	1964	1965	Total
1.	Damoh	10	7	3	13	6	6	5	67	59	83	259
2.	Patharia	8	16	22	5	10	6	5	9	3	6	90
3.	Hindoria	8	11	7	22	5	8	2	2	2	8	75
4.	Nohta	6	11	8	5	16	8	3	10	6	7	80
5.	Jabera	9	3	1	3	—	2	4	8	11	18	59
6.	Tendukhera	4	5	5	6	3	4	7	17	19	26	96
7.	Tejgarh	11	6	5	9	5	7	0	16	16	8	89
8.	Hatta	9	7	6	—	3	3	1	6	4	4	43
9.	Batiagarh	9	9	4	4	4	4	7	4	4	7	56
10.	Gaisabad	3	1	3	—	—	2	2	2	—	—	13
11.	Kumhari	10	2	4	2	4	6	4	12	16	14	74
12.	Madiadoh	—	3	1	2	4	3	—	9	8	0	39
13	Patera	—	—	—	—	—	2	2	2	5	—	11
14.	Rajpur (a)	—	—	—	—	—	—	1	2	5	3	11
District Total		87	81	69	71	60	61	49	166	158	193	995

TABLE—V

Thanawise Monthly Mortality from Reptiles during the years 1963, 1964 and 1965

Name of Police Stations	Jan.	Feb.	Mar.	Apr.	May.	Jun.	Jul.	Aug.	Sep.	Oct	Nov.	Dec.	Total
1. Damoh	14	18	14	16	21	13	8	24	10	25	20	16	209
2. Hindoria	1	—	—	—	2	—	4	—	1	2	1	1	12
3. Patharia	—	—	1	2	2	2	4	1	1	4	1	—	18
4. Nohta	—	2	—	1	—	1	6	1	5	7	—	—	23
5. Jabera	1	4	4	2	2	6	4	6	2	3	1	2	37
6. Tejgarh	2	—	2	3	2	7	5	4	8	5	2	—	40
7. Tendukhera	3	4	4	5	9	5	6	6	9	9	1	1	62
8. Batiagarh	—	—	2	1	—	5	6	1	—	—	—	—	15
9. Patera	1	—	1	—	—	1	1	1	—	1	1	—	7
10. Kumhari	1	3	1	9	4	4	3	4	4	3	3	3	42
11. Hatta	9	—	1	4	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	14
12. Madiadah	1	2	1	2	5	1	—	2	4	4	3	1	26
13. Gaisabad	—	1	—	—	—	1	—	—	—	—	—	—	2
14. Rajpura	2	—	—	—	3	—	1	1	3	—	—	—	10
District Total	35	34	36	45	51	45	58	51	47	63	33	24	517

TABLE—VI

Number of Human Mortalities caused by Wild Animals During the years 1956 to 1962 (Thanawise)

Animal	Name of Police Station	1956	1957	1958	1959	1960	1961	1962	Total
Tiger	1. Tendukhera	—	1	—	—	—	—	—	
	2. Jabera	—	—	—	—	1	—	—	
	3. Hindoria	—	—	—	—	—	1	—	
	4. Kumhari	—	—	—	—	1	2	—	
		—	1	1	—	2	3	—	6
Leopard	1. Kumhari	1	—	—	—	—	—	—	
	2. Nohta	—	1	—	—	—	—	—	
		1	1	—	—	—	—	—	2
Others	1. Damoh	1	—	—	—	—	—	—	
	2. Patharia	1	—	2	—	1	1	—	
	3. Nohta	1	—	—	—	—	—	11	
	4. Tendukhera	1	3	—	—	—	—	—	
	5. Hatta	—	—	2	4	4	5	1	
	6. Hindoria	—	—	—	—	1	—	1	
	7. Jabera	—	—	—	—	1	—	—	
	8. Tejgarh	—	—	—	—	1	—	—	
	9. Batiagarh	—	—	—	—	—	—	1	
	10. Gaisabad	—	—	—	—	—	—	1	
		4	3	4	4	8	6	15	44

TABLE—VII

Thanawise Number of Domestic Animals killed by Snakes and Wild Animals during the years 1956 to 1965

Animal Causing Death	1956	1957	1958	1959	1960	1961	1962	1963	1964	1965	Total
Snakes	—	1	—	—	1	—	—	5	9	3	19
Tigers	19	6	127	8	42	41	15	—	8	9	275
Leopards	—	2	92	13	9	3	—	—	—	—	119
Others	—	1	—	18	17	1	2	15	15	24	93
Total	19	10	219	39	69	45	17	50	32	36	506

TABLE—VIII

Classification of Area

In acres upto 1964-65 and in '000 Hectares from 1965-66 onwards

Year	Total Geographical Area According to Village Papers	Forests	Not Available for Cultivation: Land put to Non-Agricultural uses	Not Available for Cultivation: Barren and Un-cultivable Land	Other Un-cultivated Land Excluding Fallow Land: Permanent Pastures and other Grazing Land	Other Un-cultivated Land Excluding Fallow Land: Land under Miscellaneous Tree Crops and not included in Net Area sown	Culturable Waste	Current Fallows	Old Fallows	Net Area Sown	Area Sown more than once	Total Cropped area
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13
1953-54	17,97,578	6,92,588	66,132	66,951	1,34,936	30,215	1,98,640	17,933	46,118	5,44,065	23,206	5,67,271
1954-55	17,97,578	6,86,691	68,282	54,000	1,48,441	29,598	1,85,165	15,360	21,238	5,68,803	32,531	6,01,334
1955-56	17,97,578	6,73,344	69,210	48,705	1,68,535	26,751	1,75,748	30,157	36,097	5,69,031	40,168	6,09,199
1956-57	17,97,578	6,74,035	72,435	46,190	1,70,790	24,702	1,71,434	30,624	41,839	5,65,529	45,930	6,11,456
1957-58	17,97,578	6,75,050	72,464	46,286	1,71,814	23,023	1,68,534	29,600	50,213	5,60,594	25,520	5,86,114
1958-59	17,97,578	6,74,958	69,175	44,056	1,78,839	21,629	1,63,672	19,715	49,133	5,76,401	41,027	6,17,428
1959-60	17,97,578	6,74,459	71,197	41,566	1,83,866	18,247	1,57,319	19,303	44,166	5,87,455	42,494	6,29,947
1960-61	17,97,578	6,77,053	70,836	39,597	1,86,631	16,579	1,55,279	18,701	40,722	5,92,180	43,532	6,35,712
1961-62	18,00,694	6,81,933	71,315	38,593	1,85,240	17,419	1,54,191	20,235	37,649	5,94,119	54,113	6,48,232
1962-63	18,01,360	6,84,257	73,428	38,933	1,87,673	14,184	1,46,884	19,367	37,107	5,99,527	42,738	6,42,265
1963-64	18,01,426	6,67,964	74,307	54,195	2,37,854	6,650	1,35,760	16,390	36,727	5,68,579	40,787	6,09,366
1964-65	18,01,413	6,68,017	66,160	1,55,102	96,027	2,276	1,87,851	14,770	33,833	5,78,377	46,988	6,25,365
1965-66	729	370	27	63	60	9	53	7	12	235	10	245
1966-67	729	270	27	63	39	8	55	7	12	255	9	264
1967-68	729	269	28	34	65	4	49	6	10	262	18	280
1968-69	729	272	27	28	72	2	45	5	8	270	19	289
1970-71	729	271	26	27	72	3	41	9	5	275	21	296

TABLE—IX

Net Area Irrigated

(In Acres)

Year	Canals	Wells	Tanks	Other Sources	Total
1951-52	8,000	1,876	143	5,838	15857
1952-53	8,450	1,823	799	6,655	17,727
1953-54	15,875	2,077	204	635	18,791
1954-55	16,114	2,106	144	603	18,967
1955-56	13,810	2,056	907	637	17,410
1956-57	9,266	1,739	647	597	12,249
1957-58	10,848	1,931	2,609	641	16,029
1958-59	18,095	2,229	992	582	21,898
1959-60	17,435	2,330	1,221	714	21,700
1960-61	20,960	2,202	950	1,113	25,225
1961-62	21,990	2,150	346	788	25,274
1962-63	22,878	2,350	123	674	26,025
1963-64	23.859	2,334	18	765	26,976
1964-65	26,713	2,834	91	975	30,613
					(In Hectares)
1965-66	4,581	904	13	414	5,912
1966-67	4,551	1,185	825	278	7,139
1967-68	6,896	1,396	56	492	8,840

TABLE—X

Tanks Maintained by P. W. D. (Irrigation Branch)

S. No.	Name of Project	*Location*	Length of Canal (In Ch.)	Irrigable Capacity ((In Acres)	Year of Construction	Cost of Project (Rs. in Lakhs)
1.	Baheria	Baheria Village	105	405	1910	0.16
2.	Garaghat	Ghangri Village	330	1,024	1912	1.2
3.	Patna	Patna Village	55	230	1912	0.04
4.	Mala	Mala & Richhai Village	117	6,500	1913-14	7.12
5.	Chiraipani	Chiraipani Village	440	1.320	1913	1.06
6.	Jamnera	Jamnera Village	160	810	1914-15	0.52
7.	Majgawan Hansraj	Majgawan Hansraj	435	2,000	1914-15	1.03
8.	Majgawan	Majgawan Village	25	150	1914-15	0.48
9.	Hardua Muran	Hardua Village	95	922	1917	0.73
10.	Dhangour	Dhangour Village	140	788	1918	0.42
11.	Richhai	Mala & Richhai Village	239	2,000	1918	0.54
12.	Chhote Deori	Chhote Deori	53	650	1921	0.48
13.	Bhat Khamaria	Bhat Khamaria	2	450	1953	0.10
14.	Hardua Sarak	Hardua Sarak Village	947	250	1953	1.20
15.	Alag Sagar	Alag Sagar	5	66	1953	0.17
16.	Keolari	Keolari Village	232	390	1953	1.73
17.	Phutera	Mailee Village	160	490	1953	1.34
18.	Nonpani	Cunji Village	107	580	1953	1.62
19.	Barpati	Gori Village	71	1,170	1957	4.39
20.	Tejgarh	Tejgarh Village	217	8,230	1958	42.71
21.	Jabera	Jabera & Bandar Kola	234	2,250	1958	11.17

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
22.	Jhalehri Ghana	Jhalehri Ghana	102	694	1958	3.59
23.	Piparia Jugraj	Piparia Jugraj	95	546	1958	3.89
24.	Motinala	Patharia Village	165	1,665	1958	11.93
25.	Jharoli Nala Weir	Jharoli Village	195	400	1962	0.94
26.	Singrampur Regulater	Singrampur Village	40	750	1962	0.24
27.	Shajadpura Regulater	Shajadpura Village	113	500	1962	0.98
28.	Seedfarm	Seedfarm Village	600	100	1962	0.28
29.	Killai	Killai Village	20	60	1962	0.19
30.	Piparia Ramnath	—	—	100	1963	0.20
31.	Daroli	Daroli Village	320	3,531	1964	33.53
32.	Barrat	Barrat Village	6	94	1964	0.65
33.	Semta Madia	Semra Madia	—	30	1964	0.20
34.	Dumar	Dumar	—	85	1964	0.68

TABLE—XI

Area Under Principal Crops

(In Acres)

Year	Rice	Jowar	Wheat	Gram	Sesamum	Linseed
1951-52	86,278	37,869	2,06,882	60,926	24,308	35,251
1952-53	86,346	46,852	2,08,385	60,515	14,912	19,014
1953-54	87,269	62,996	1,97,557	50,197	33,125	18,777
1954-55	87,489	64,278	2,18,588	46,144	43,063	17,918
1955-56	87,219	60,188	2,43,134	51,107	29,733	20,338
1956-57	93,377	29,672	2,92,237	52,781	18,853	27,727
1957-58	93,344	61,887	2,17,598	61,502	42,494	11,503
1958-59	95,926	66,605	2,23,258	60,447	44,106	18,668
1959-60	99,393	44,056	2,62,255	61,500	30,804	18,464
1960-61	1,01,429	45,325	2,82,002	61,299	16,978	14,650
1961-62	1,03,588	39,376	2,86,369	55,613	26,065	27,787
1962-63	1,07,415	38,259	2,83,688	58,170	18,226	23,964
1963-64	1,09,881	37,288	2,80,789	61,415	16,652	25,137
1964-65	1,10,904	47,384	2,71,066	43,233	21,139	30,833
					(In '000 Hectares)	
1965-66	45	16	86	34	11	8
1966-67	45	21	76	38	17	5
1967-68	44	22	101	27	9	11
1970-71	48.7	16.9	131.8	21.9	6.4	12.2

TABLE—XII

Production of Principal Crops

(In '000 Tons)

Year	Rice	Jowar	Wheat	Gram	Sesamum	Linseed
1955-56	15.5	9.8	49.6	10.2	1.4	1.4
1956-57	15.6	4.5	29.7	8.0	0.5	0.5
1957-58	8.6	18.3	26.2	7.8	1.6	0.3
1958-59	18.1	26.6	62.2	10.1	1.8	1.2
1959-60	18.2	18.0	80.3	12.8	1.8	1.2
1960-61	18.2	16.2	81.2	11.3	0.4	1.4
1961-62	31.3	9.5	88.6	11.8	0.8	2.2
1962-63	18.2	11.7	72.5	12.3	0.8	2.0
1963-64	29.8	14.7	51.1	10.2	0.7	1.8
1964-65	32.1	24.0	71.7	8.4	0.8	2.5
					(In '000 Metric Tons)	
1965-66	14.4	15.1	37.8	17.9	1.2	1.2
1966-67	13.2	13.7	29.9	10.4	1.4	0.7
1967-68	30.2	21.0	82.6	11.0	0.6	2.0
1970-71	33.6	14.6	76.2	9.2	0.6	2.2

TABLE—XIII

Agricultural Machinery and Implements (Tahsilwise)

Tahsil	Plough		Carts	Sugarcane Crushers		Oil Engines with Pumps for Irrigation Purposes	Electric Pumps for Irrigation Purposes	Oil Engines for other Purposes	Persian wheels	Motes	Tractors		Ghanis	
	Wooden	Iron		Worked by Power	Worked by Bullocks						Govt.	Private	Five Seers and over	Less than Five Seers
1956														
Damoh	31,583	12	13,487	—	61	8	1	18	27	908	22	16	—	—
Hatta	21,280	17	8,496	—	50	5	—	3	13	781	—	9	—	—
Distt. Total	52,863	29	21,983	—	111	13	1	21	40	1,689	22	25	3	40
1961														
Damoh	40,945	171	16,058	1	65	16	5	9	28	814	—	16	9	222
Hatta	22,622	22	9,826	—	60	10	—	10	8	777	—	12	2	204
Distt. Total	63,568	193	25,884	1	125	26	5	19	36	1,591	—	28	11	426
1966	63,217	106	29,879	1	113	155	17	NA	NA	NA	29	29	17	270
1969	59,584	725	26,614	16	99	179	95	NA	99	NA	59	59	14	157

TABLE—XIV

Number of Livestock (Tahsilwise)

Year	Tahsil/ District	Cattle	Buffaloes	Sheep	Goats	Horses and Ponies	Donkeys	Mules	Camels	Pigs	Total Livestock
1956	Damoh	2,38,255	44,223	4,300	28,335	1,942	626	2	—	3,494	3,21,177
	Hatta	1,60,905	27,163	3,532	22,051	1,813	559	10	3	2,286	2,18,322
Distt. Total		3,99,160	71,386	7,832	50,386	3,755	1,185	12	3	5,780	5,39,499
1961	Damoh	2,64,518	47,781	4,021	32,276	1,137	618	—	—	3,310	3,53,661
	Hatta	1,69,531	29,804	3,822	25,896	1,091	608	2	2	2,054	2,32,810
Distt. Total		4,34,049	77,585	7,843	58,172	2,228	1,226	2	2	5,364	5,86,471
1966		4,35,493	71,244	7,096	59,244	1,937	891	35	1	5,149	5,81,090
1968		3,62,806	61,694	8,151	51,082	1,484	445	1	1	3,419	4,89,083

TABLE—XV

Poultry Population (Tahsilwise)

Tahsil	Fowls				Ducks	Others	Total
	Hens	Cocks	Chickens	Total			
1956							
Damoh	3,158	1,118	3,274	7,550	5	188	7,743
Hatta	1,424	542	2,019	3,985	—	42	4,027
Distt. Total	4,582	1,660	5,293	11,535	5	230	11,770
1961							
Damoh	4,404	1,490	5,447	11,341	25	11	11,377
Hatta	1,878	769	2,563	5,210	—	38	5,248
Distt. Total	6,282	2,259	8,010	16,551	25	49	16,625
1966	—	—	—	18,744	342	—	19,086
1968	—	—	—	9,499	357	—	9,856

TABLE—XVI

Loans Granted from State Funds: Ordinary Taccavi

(In Rupees)

Year	Agriculturists Loans Act	Land Improvement Loans Act
1957-58	1,69,582	4,08,559
1958-59	1,39,576	1,91,864
1959-60	93,638	1,46,698
1960-61	68,770	2,10,561
1961-62	88,008	1,09,853
1962-63	67,920	1,27,025
1963-64	2,12,820	1,91,289
1964-65	2,79,967	2,68,574
1965-66	3,32,560	4,05,987
1966-67	1,41,452	No Advance Given
1967-68	4,24,167	,,
1968-69	2,33,082	,,
1969-70	56,416	,,
1970-71	55,250	,,

TABLE—XVII

Taccavi Loans—G. M. F. Schemes

In Rupees

Items	1957-58	1958-59	1959-60	1960-61	1961-62	1962-63	1963-64	1964-65	1965-66
1. Fertilizers	11,879	46,604	51,922	34,866	31,808	20,902	1,44,920	2,24,487	—
2. Improved Seeds	1,62,303	69,872	33,366	27,704	38,200	80,518	19,000	—	—
3. Wells	400	5,900	8,335	5,850	37,125	12,025	29,050	64,450	2,82,000
4. Machine Tractor Scheme	4,03,569	1,85,964	7,37,463	2,04,711	67,728	1,15,000	1,62,239	2,04,124	1,23,987
5. Oil Engine Pumps	—	21,100	8,350	6,200	15,000	26,500	43,500	55,500	3,27,600
6. Rahats	—	2,000	—	—	8,000	—	5,400	—	1,960
7. Electric Pumps	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	3,000
8. Tanks	—	—	900	—	—	—	—	—	—
Total	5,78,151	3,31,440	2,40,336	2,79,331	1,97,861	1,94,945	4,04,109	5,48,561	7,38,547

TABLE—XVIII

Madhya Pradesh State Ware-House, Damoh—Total Deposits of Important Commodities from 1960 to 1970

(In Bags)

Year	Wheat	Moong	Gram	Jowar	Urd	Ground-nut
1960-61	12,353	90	1,156	—	—	—
1961-62	4,105	—	—	500	230	816
1962-63	596	—	4,035	835	1,237	295
1963-64	222	100	3,835	—	70	—
1964-65	1,419	363	2,080	—	152	925
1965-66	4,900	198	1,166	3,281	152	Nil
1966-67	10,604	Nil	4,000	17,583	Nil	Nil
1967-68	22,098	1,235	3,050	19,950	Nil	Nil
1968-69	14,758	1,285	1,006	12,359	Nil	540
1969-70	21,281	Nil	873	2,546	Nil	Nil

(Source:—Manager, Ware-House Centre, Damoh.)

TABLE—XIX

Working of the Central Bank, Damoh

Year	No. of Societies	No. of Members	Share Capital	Working Capital	Deposits	Investment Loans given	Loans outstanding against societies
1951	159	—	49,912	6,12,823	3,43,455	—	2,49,969
1956	252	—	—	—	—	—	—
1961	261	—	5,68,365	36,05,524	12,78,966	39,14,379	37,24,448
1966	266	668	13,35,005	88,35,339	33,18,350	69,06,965	65,95,156
1967	126	320	13,99,145	97,50,206	36,66,700	80,95,306	1,06,66,114
1968	126	333	15,14,895	1,03,04,220	39,88,959	81,95,973	78,60,780
1969	125	509	15,58,530	1,12,19,794	48,72,674	1,62,72,430	1,56,32,192
1970	168	496	16,56,600	1,35,35,234	51,80,201	1,20,43,995	83,35,535
1971	163	496	19,82,120	1,77,33,692	59,91,501	1,86,01,921	1,27,16,179

(Source:—Assistant Registrar, Cooperative Societies, Damoh)

TABLE—XX

Statement showing the Inflow and Outflow of some important commodities from Damoh Railway Station

(Weight in Quintals)

Commodities	1964	1965	1966	1967	1968	1969
Outward						
Wheat	8,266	7,662	7,582	5,272	1,624	1,151
Timber	1,895	1,730	2,140	2,472	60,859	72,994
Firewood and Charcoal	53,262	58,106	57,271	56,372	98,202	1,40,568
Edible Oil	8,110	8,303	8,704	8,842	16,479	12,173
Oilseeds and Oil cakes	18,845	17,645	17,986	18,842	33,074	21,117
General Goods	8,954	8,655	8,903	8,610	5,716	12,437
Inward						
Salt	19,876	18,742	18,670	21,340	40,157	33,854
Sugar	18,828	23,642	22,910	22,642	18,146	21,228
Kerosene Oil	16,600	14,300	14,990	15,760	12,381	8,927
General Goods	9,342	9,961	9,942	9,670	94,832	25,899
Steam coal	53,262	59,690	61,980	66,652	3,121	1,557
Cement	24,690	28,410	26,376	24,269	19,411	17,036
Govt. Wheat	58,660	62,390	59,605	58,342	18,630	3,740
Edible Oil	8,970	8,840	8,690	8,540	—	—

TABLE—XXI

Arrivals at Mandi, Damoh

(Weight in quintals)

Names of Commodities	Years						
	1963-64	1964-65	1965-66	1966-67	1967-68	1968-69	1969-70
1. Wheat	37,103	18.917	19,102	13,691	11,674	7,926	9,600
2. Gram	56,948	17,984	29,300	29,381	11,424	20,732	7,993
3. Jowar	21,936	9,641	1,757	1,131	11,975	1,766	1,854
4. Rice	13,285	10,955	2,707	1,445	1,453	Nil	Nil
5. Masoor	53,139	50,867	63,980	64,462	21,355	67,063	47,806
6. Moong	2,032	3,375	1,167	965	443	574	345
7. Urd	1,720	2,575	1,344	1,409	713	1,657	1,407
8. Groundnut	16,380	25,520	5,430	5,337	3,136	18,321	12,479
9. Tilli	17,924	13,855	25,427	20,086	10,555	4,776	42,496
10. Oil-Seeds	33,230	51,301	34,866	34,050	10,649	47,977	46,440

(Source:—Krishi Upaj Mandi Samiti, Damoh)

TABLE—XXII

Receipt from Different Sources of Revenue—Central and State

(in Rupees)

Years	Union Excise	Income Tax	Estate Duty	State Excise	Sales Tax	Taxes on Motor Vehicles	Forests	Registration	Stamps
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
1880-81	—			16,041				999	21,752
1890-91	—	6,335		20,373	—			2,227	37,136
1900-01	—	3,871		12,838	—			1,121	29,605
1911-12	—	1,881		—	—			3,633	47,998
1921-22	—	14,177		—	—			8,123	90,605
1931-32	—	2,264		—	—			7,463	43,154
1941-42	—	7,131		—	—			12,589	60,125
1956-57	—	—		2,111	77,392	16,286	2,62,849	15,235	53,971
1957-58	—	46,449		3,610	3,14,296	37,456	4,00,412	42,589	1,32,979
1958-59	17,46,169	79,870	5,078	3,916	1,27,166	1,00,047	9,68,914	50,309	1,56,551
1959-60	25,98,773	1,61,577	5,128	3,737	2,10,518	60,663	7,59,582	49,186	1,59,455
1960-61	29,25,539	86,182	5,550	3,226	2,69,756	79,246	7,12,201	32,965	1,39,380
1961-62	34,60,183	2,74,670	22,762	4,825	3,42,701	1,06,409	8,58,330	47,740	1,69,785
1962-63	36,35,662	1,91,070	14,788	4,973	3,71,349	1,31,298	12,33,922	41,508	1,77,162
1963-64	42,76,657	2,71,271	—	11,150	4,66,673	90,140	10,39,719	44,629	2,15,944

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
1964-65	56,52,742	3,72,693	—	10,305	5,89,585	1,28,473	11,13,312	48,152	2,29,197
1965-66	47,94,499	7,36,523	13,266	10,048	8,69,404	1,63,929	9,50,092	84,395	2,76,922
1966-67	47,04,605	6,87,694	—	28,186	11,39,572	1,72,851	34,75,089	71,360	3,11,585
1967-68	48,78,133	5,96,372	1,131	6,76,977	9,89,822	1,87,872	37,01,847	90,904	3,77,929
1968-69	47,74,793	4,80,674	1,145	8,90,961	14,43,699	1,90,261	60,43,901	90,214	4,58,952
1969-70	52,77,522	4,93,012	1,038	8,65,149	15,97,547	1,96,141	43,02,422	1,00,289	4,99,040

Source:—District Treasury Officer, Damoh

TABLE—XXIII

Nyaya Panchayat Civil and Criminal Revisions

(A) Civil

Year	Pending at the Beginning of the Year	Instituted or re-instituted during the Year	Total
[illegible]	19	39	58
[illegible]	6	29	35
1967	18	14	32
1968	4	15	19
1969	7	16	23
1970	6	8	14
(B) Criminal			
1961	4	49	[illegible]
1966	19	39	58
1967	16	16	32
1968	3	25	28
1969	5	8	13
1970	2	6	8

TABLE—XXIV

Number of Prisoners

Year	Prisoners at the beginning of the year			Received During the year			Total			Discharged from All Causes			Remaining at the end of the year		
	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total
1961	57	—	57	377	8	385	434	8	442	387	7	394	47	1	48
1962	47	1	48	425	12	437	472	13	485	395	13	407	88	—	88
1963	88	—	88	427	12	439	515	12	527	402	11	413	113	1	114
1964	113	1	114	466	14	480	579	15	594	483	14	497	96	1	97

TABLE—XXV

Income and Expenditure of Janapada Sabha, Damoh (1948-49 to 1969-70)

(A) Source of Income	1948-49	1950-51	1955-56	1960-61	1962-63	1963-64	1964-65	1965-66	1966-67	1967-68	1968-69	1969-70
1. Municipal Rates & Taxes	34,896	71,867	92,125	94,071	85,504	91,200	1,12,060	81,306	66,324	44,518	81,817	92,098
2. Realisation Under Special Acts	29,558	49,912	91,216	4,46,860	5,34,967	3,22,772	1,43,134	2,41,945	61	—	—	465
3. Other Sources of Revenue	72,876	81,073	3,12,776	605	1,620	2,568	2,291	1,471	58,877	42,169	81,803	4,37,165
4. Extraordinary & Debt	50,631	38,593	50,924	60,026	60,354	56,397	81,827	46,169	1,27,099	1,11,040	99,569	46,584
Total	1,87,961	2,41,445	5,47,041	6,01,562	6,82,445	4,72,937	3,39,312	3,70,891	2,52,361	1,97,727	2,63,189	5,76,312
(B) Head of Expenditure												
1. General Administration & Collection Charges	4,733	14,111	14,045	19,036	17,129	17,332	30,917	23,979	26,091	26,462	20,950	21,430
2. Public Safety	21,948	24,551	32,027	—	—	—	—	—	63,076	74,073	68,544	66,602
3. Public Health and Convenience	30,313	44,651	95,357	16,390	16,159	17,367	27,774	29,525	24,665	36,896	38,029	27,772
4. Public Instruction	62,821	1,21,827	1,79,827	4,19,256	4,89,210	3,60,481	1,48,001	1,63,166	1,85,769	2,27,470	2,47,152	2,62,339
5. Contribution for General Purpose	2,680	5,966	7,515	—	—	—	—	—	14,766	12,709	12,862	12,584
6. Miscellaneous	5,349	8,909	16,470	—	—	—	—	—	5,790	4,431	4,917	4,516
7. Extraordinary & Debt	26,008	28,217	57,718	1,21,265	85,710	84,596	37,848	78,691	55,725	59,457	33,588	32,685
Total	1,53,852	2,48,232	4,02,959	5,75,947	6,08,208	4,79,776	2,44,540	2,95,361	3,75,882	4,41,498	4,26,042	4,27,928

TABLE—XXVI

Malaria—Active and Passive Surveillance Operations

Year	Active Surveillance			Passive Surveillance			Mass Blood Survey		Total		
	No. of fever cases detected	No. of blood smear collected	No. found positive	No. of fever cases detected	No. of blood smear collected	No. found positive	No. of blood smear collected	No. found positive	No. of fever cases	No. of blood smear collected	No. found positive
1960	6,213	4,500	—	4,327	—	—	—	—	10,639	4,500	—
1961	32,790	30,690	—	18,319	2,116	—	—	—	51,109	32,806	—
1962	20,061	18,159	1	14,120	4,157	1	—	—	34,181	32,316	1
1963	26,036	23,277	261	8,570	5,109	5	3,638	70	44,606	32,024	136
1964	24,826	24,139	10	9,105	3,520	3	4,216	1	33,931	31,875	14
1965	35,550	34,994	17	4,999	5,559	20	2,842	1	40,549	43,395	38

APPENDIX—B—I

List of Trees, Shrubs, Climbers, etc.

Trees:—

Bhirra (*Chloroxylon grietenin*), kardahi or kardhai (*Anogeissus pendula*), Achar (*Buchanania lanjan*), papra (*Gardenia latifolia*), bahera (*Terminalia belerica*), bija or bijasal (*Pterocarpus marsupium*), bel (*Aegle marmelos*), roham (*Soymida febrifuga*), khamar or siwan (*Gmelina arborea*), Eka mahua (*Madhuca latifolia*), gabdi or gongal (*Cochlospermum gossypium*), panjra or hadua (*Erythrina suberosa*), astoo or apta (*Bauhinia racemosa*), chichwa or airma, (*Albizzia odoratissima*), mundi or kaim (*Mitragyna parviflora*), padar (*Stereospermum suavellens*), amaltas (*Cassia fistula*), kasai (*Bridelia retusa*), baranga or barga (*Kydia calcina*), jamrasi (*Elacodendron galaucum*), Jamun (*Eugenia jambolana*), ber (*Zizyphus jujuba*), dhaman (*Grewia tiliaefolia*), bilsena (*Limonia acidissima*), dhobin (*Dalbergia paniculata*), chirhol (*Holoptelia integrifolia*), semal (*Bombax malabaricum*), pakar or pakhar, (*Ficus infectoria*), babul (*Acacia arabica*), pipal (*Ficus religiosa*), ghato or mokha (*Schrebera swietenioides*), hewar or rheonjha (*Acacis leucophloea*), neem (*Axadirachta indica*), gular or umar (*Ficus glomerata*), kari (*Saceopetalum tomentosum*), khirni or khuja (*Mimusops hexandra*), kusum (*Schleichera trijuga*), tinsa (*Ougeinia delbergioides*), kanker or kaker (*Flacourtia remontchi*), imli (*Tamarindus indica*), am (*Mangifera indica*), shisham (*Dalbergia latifolia*), kathbad or katumar (*Ficus hispida*), dudhi (*Wrightia tinetoria*), lokhandi (*Ixora parviflora*), bar or bargad (*Ficus bengalensis*), kaith (*Feronia elephantam*), siris or safed siris (*Albizola procera*), sitaphal (*Anona squamosa*), bhilma (*Semicarpus anacardium*) and kumbhi (*Careva arbore ι*).

Shrubs and Weeds:—

Ainthni or marorphal (*Helicteres isora*), ail or chilati or chheti (*Acacia pinnata*), karonda (*Carissa spinarum*), siharoo or kharasi or harsingar (*Nyctanthis arbortristis*), bharati or baikal (*Gymnosporea montana*), bamboos (*Dendrocalamus strictus* or *Bambusa arundinacea*), tarota or puar (*Alanjimu lamarekaii*), phetra (*Gardenia turgida*), gurra or chilati-bari (*Acacara caisia*), dhawai or jilbili (*Woodfordia floribunda*), nil (*Indigofera spp*), nirgundi (*Vitex negundo*), lantana (*Lantana acule ta*), thuar (*Euphorbia tirucalli*), indrajava or kuda (*Holarrhena antidycenterica*), garusukri or gangerua (*Grewia hirsuta*), satawar and chhind (*Phoenix sylvestris*).

Climbers and Parasites.—

Palasbel (*Bute asuperba*), mahul (*Bauhinia vahli*), ramdaton (*Smilax macrophylla*), phulkat (*Gymnema selvestre*), nagbel (*Cryptolepis buchandni*), amarbel (*Cuscuta reflexa*), bandha (*Loranthus longiflora*), and gunchi or gunj (*Abbrus pricatorius*).

Grasses.—

Kusal, sukal or lampa (*Andropogon contortus*), barru (*Andropogaon halepensis*), rusa or tikhari or bikhari (*Synbopogon martinii*), sabai or bhabar or sum (*Ischaemum angustifolium or pollinidium binatum*), kans and doob or harlali *Cynodon dactylon*).

APPENDIX—B—II

List of Fish Species

Indigenous Local Species

1. Labeo fimbriatus
2. Labeo calbasu
3. Labeo gonius
4. Tor Tor
5. Cirrhina Reba
6. Mystus seenghala
7. Mystus aor
8. Mystus cavasius
9. Mystus vittatus
10. Wallago attu
11. Opheocephalus marulius
12. Opheocephalus striatus
13. Opheocephalus gachua
14. Opheocephalus punctatus
15. Mastacembalus armatus
16. Mastacembalus pancalus
17. Macrognathus (Rhynchobdella) aculeatum
18. Xenantodon cancilla
19. Clarias batrachus
20. Heteropneustes fossilis
21. Puntius sarana
22. Puntius ticto
23. Puntius stigma
24. Oxygaster bacaila
25. Notopterus notopterus
26. Rita pavimentata
27. Nandus nandus
28. Nemacheilus botia
29. Lepidoceohalichthys guntia
30. Callichrous Pabda
31. Robtee cotio
32. Rasbora daniconius

33. Ambassis ranga
34. Ambassis nama
35. Ompak bimaculatus
36. Glossogobius giurus

Departmentally cultivated Species

1. Catla catla (Catla)
2. Labeo rohita (Rohu)
3. Cirrhina mrigala (Mrigal)
4. Cyprinus carpio (Commar carp)

APPENDIX—B—III

List of Important Fairs and Melas

S. No.	Place where Mela or Fair is held	When held		Local religious or other occasion of the Mela or Fair	Duration of the Mela or Fair (in days)	Average total	Who manages the Fair/Mela
		Hindi Month	English Month				
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
			1. HATTA TAHSIL				
1.	Magrol	Chaitra	March/April	Navratri	5	10,000	Mela Committee
2.	Rajpura	No certain date	March	Kali Mata ka Mela	5	1,000	Gram Panchayat
3.	Adanwara	No certain date	March	Jalkandhi ka Mela	7	4,000	Gram Panchayat
4.	Bhiloni	Na certain date	April	Karera Fair	1	2,000	Tahsildar
5.	Kundalpur	No certain date	April	Ambika Mai ka Mela	2	2,000	Local People
6.	Sakore	No certain date	June	Hanumanji ka Mala	1	2,000	Gram Panchayat
7.	Kumhari	Kartika	October/Nov.	Diwali	4	2,500	Local People
8.	Agara	Pausa/Magha	January	Nilkantheshwar	7	6,000/7,000	Gram Panchayat
9.	Mada Hardua	Pausa/Magha	January	Sankrant	2	3,000/4,000	Local People
10.	Jamunia	Pausa/Magha	January	Sankrant	1	2,000/3,000	Local People
11.	Patera	Pausa/Magha	January	Sankrant	2	2,000	Local People
12.	Muhas	Pausa/Magha	January	Sankrant	2	1,000	Local People
13.	Saksuma	Pausa/Magha	January	Sankrant	1	1,000	Gram Panchayat
14.	Saliya	Pausa/Magha	January	Sankrant	3	2,000	Gram Panchayat
15.	Kanti	No certain date	January	Kanti ka Mela	3	4,000/5,000	Gram Panchayat
16.	Wardha	Magha Sudi 5	January/Feb.	Basant Panchami	1	8,000	Police
17.	Batiagarh	Phalguna Badi 13	February/March	Shivratri	3	6,000/7,000	Gram Panchayat

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
				2. DAMOH TAHSIL			
18.	Narsingarh	No certain date	May	Urs	2	2,000/3,000	Muslim Community
19.	Damoh	Sravana Sudi 5	July/August	Nag Panchami	1	6,000	Municipal Committee
20.	Nahta	Kartika	Oct./Nov.	Diwali	3	3,000/4,000	Gram Panchayat
21.	Jabera	Kartika	Oct./Nov.	Diwali	1	1,000	Gram Panchayat
22.	Tendukheda	Kartika	Oct./Nov.	Mahadeo ka Mela	5	2,000	Gram Panchayat
23.	Sukha	Agrahayana	Nov./Decem.	Nisai Fair	3	1,000	Local People
24.	Chopra	No certain date	November	Chandi Fair	5	2,000/3,000	Gram Panchayat
25.	Bamhori	No certain date	December	Chandi Fair	5	4,000/5,000	Local People
26.	Kodol	No certain date	December	Mahadeo ka Mela	5	2.500	Local People
27.	Damoh	Pausa/Magha	January	Jatashankar Fair	1	6,000	Municipal Committee
28.	Chakeri	Pausa Magha	January	Sankrant	4	4,000/5,000	Local People
29	Kakarda Malwara	Pausa/Magha	January	Sankrant	3	4 000	Local People
30.	Bansoli	Pausa/Magha	January	Sankrant	1	200/300	Mandir Committee
31.	Lakhauni	No certain date	January	Urs	2	400/500	Local People
32.	Ronda	Pausa/Magha	January	Sankrant	5	7,000/8000	Gram Panchayat
33.	Hardua	Pausa/Magha	January	Sankrant	7	20,000	Janpad Sabha
34.	Tejgarh	Pausa/Magha	January	Sankrant	7	7,000/8,000	Janpad Sabha
35.	Bandakpur	Magha Sudi 5	Jan./Feb.	Basant Panchami	8	200,000	Janpad Sabha
36.	Patheria	Phalguna Badi 13	Feb./March	Shivaratri	7	5,000/6,000	Gram Panchayat

Source : Superintendent of Police, Damoh.

APPENDIX—B—IV

Situatian of Rest Houses, Circuit Houses, etc.

S. No.	Name of Tahsil	Situation of Rest Houses etc.	Category of accommodation	Situation of the road	Department responsible for maintenance
1.	Damoh	1 mile from Damoh Zero mile stone	Two suites	Damoh-Jabalpur road	P. W. D.
2.	Damoh	—do—	4 suites	—do—	—do—
3.	Damoh	In mile 13/F-3 of Damoh Jabalpur road	Two suites	—do— /	—do—
4.	Damoh	In mile 26/F-1 of Damoh Jabalpur road, (Debera)	—do—	—do—	—do—
5.	Hatta	In mile 24 from Damoh	—do—	Damoh-Hatta road	—do—
6.	Damoh	10 miles from Garhakota (Patharia)	—do—	Garhakota-Patharia Road	—do—
7.	Damoh	Mile 12/F-4 (Narsingarh)	—do—	Damoh-Batiagarh road	—do—
8.	Hatta	Mile 20/F-7 (Batiagarh)	—da—	Damoh-Batiagarh road	—do—
9.	Damoh	Mile 19 from Damoh on Abhana-Tendukheda-Patan-Taradehi road. Mile 49 of Abhana-Tendukheda-Patan road (Tejgarh)	—do—	Abhana-Tendukheda-Patan road	—do—
10.	Damoh	Mile 34 of Abhana-Tendukheda-Taradehi road; (Tendukheda)	—do—	Abhana-Tendukheda-Patan road	—do—
11.	Damoh	Mile 34 from Damoh	—do—	Abhana-Tendukheda-Taradehi road	—do—

APPENDIX—B—V

List of Ayurvedic Dispensaries

Government Ayurvedic Dispensaries

S. No.	Name and Place	Tahsil	Date of Establishment
1	Banwar	Hatta	2-3-1962
2.	Gaisabad	,,	19-2-1962
3.	Lubari	,,	5-3-1962
4.	Nibora	,,	August 1964
5.	Bhuri	Damoh	19-2-1962
6.	Chopra	,,	25-3-1962
7.	Manka	,,	22-2-1962
8.	Patloni	,,	23-6-1964
9.	Ramgarh	,,	8-3-1962

Ayurvedic Dispensaries managed by Local Bodies

S. No.	Name & Place	Managed by	Date of Establishment
1.	Nagar Parishad Dharmarth Aushdhalaya (Purana Bajar ward)	Municipal Council Damoh	1-11-1956
2.	Mariadoh	Janapada Sabha, Hatta	1-4-1953
3.	Hinota	,,	1-3-1958
4.	Kumhari	,,	12-6-1957
5.	Bhilani	,,	These dispensaries were temporarily closed in 1961
6.	Khaderi	,,	Government have recently sanctioned grant-in-aid to these dispensaries, and they will be reopened on securing the services of qualified vaidyas
7.	Taradehi	Janapada Sabha Damoh	26-1-1956
8.	Hindoria (Hinoti)	,,	3-3-1953
9.	Kishungunj	,,	26-1-1956
10.	Bandakpur	,,	7-5-1951
11.	Nohta	,,	5-4-1957
12.	Rond	,,	7-2-1956
13.	Singpur	,,	15-2-1956
14.	Balakot	,,	14-2-1962

APPENDIX—B—VI

Conversion Table

I. WEIGHTS

Table

10 milligrams (mg)	=1 centigram
10 centigrams	=1 decigram
10 decigrams	=1 gram (1 g=1000 mg)
10 grams	=1 dekagram
10 dekagrams	=1 hectogram
10 hectograms	=1 kilogram (1 kg=1000 g)
10 kilograms	=1 myriogram
10 myriograms	=1 quintal
10 quintals	=1 metric tonne (1 tonne=1000 kg)

From old units to new units:

1 Tola	=11.66 grams
1 Chhatak	=58.32 grams
1 Seer	=933.10 grams
1 Maund	=37.32 Kg.
1 Grain	=0.0648 gram
1 Ounce	=28.35 grams
1 Pound	=453.59 grams =45359 Kg.
1 Quarter	=12.706 kg.
1 Handerweight	=50.80 kg.
1 Ton	=1016.05 kg.

From new units to old units:

1 Gram	=0.085735 tola =15.4324 grams = 0.0352740 ounce
1 Kilogram	=1.07169 Seer =2.20462 lbs.
1 Quintal	=2.67923 maunds =220.46 lbs.
1 Metric tonne	=26.7923 maunds =0.9842 ton

II. LENGTH

Table

10 millimetres (mm)	=1 centimetre (cm)
10 centimetres	=1 decimetre
10 decimetres	=1 metre (1m=100 cms=1000mm)

10 metres	=1 dekametre
10 dekametres	=1 hectometre
10 hectometres	=1 kilometre (1 km=1000 m)

From old units to new units:

1 inch	=2.54 cms. =25.4 mms. =0.0254 m.
1 foot	=30.48 cms. =0.3048 m.
1 yard	=91.44 cms. =0.9144 m
1 furlong	=201.168 m.
1 mile	=1.609344 km. =1609.344 m.
1 chain	=20.1168 m.

From new units to old units:

1 mm.	=0.0394 inch
1 cm.	=0.393701 inch
1 decimetre	=3.937 inch
1 m.	=1.09361 yds. =3.28084 feet =39.3701 inches =0.0497097 chain =0.00497097 furlong
1 hectometre	=0.062173 mile
1 kilometre (km)	=0.62137 mile

III CAPACITY

Table

10 Millilitres (ml)	=1 centilitre
10 centilitres	=1 decilitre
10 decilitres	=1 litre (1 L=1000 ml.)
10 litres	=1 dekalitre
10 dekalitres	=1 hectolitre
10 hectolitres	=1 kilolitre

From old units to new units:

1 Ounce	=28 ml (to the nearest ml.)
1 gill	=142 ml. (to the nearest ml)
1 pint	=568 ml (to the nearest ml.) =0.56825 L
1 quart	=1 litre and 136 ml. (do) =1.13649 L
1 gallon	=4.54596 L
1 liquid seer	=940 ml. (to the nearest 10 ml.)

From new units to old units:

1 litre	=1.75980 pints
	=0.87990 quart
	=0.219975 gallon
	=1.1 liquid seer—(Approx)
	=35 liquid ounces (do)
	=1000.028 cubic centimetres
	=85.735 tolas of pure water
	=61.025 cubic inches
	=1.000028 cubic decimetres
1 kilolitre	=1.000028 cubic metres

IV VOLUME

Table

1000 cubic millimetres	=1 cubic centimetre
1000 cubic centimetres	=1 cubic decimetre
1000 cubic decimetres	=1 cubic metre

From old units to new units

1 cubic inch	=16.3871 cubic centimetres
1 cubic foot	=28.3168 cubic decimetres =28.316 litres
1 cubic yard	= 0.76455 cubic metre
1 gallon	= 0.00454609 cubic metre =4.5496 litres =4.54609 cubic decimetres
1 ounce	=28.4132 cubic centimetres
1 gill	=142.066 cubic centimetres
1 pint	=568.2440 cubic centimetres =0.56825 litre
1 quart	=1.1365 litres
1 litre	=1000.028 cubic centimetres =1.000028 cubic decimetres

From new units to old units:

1 cubic centimetre	=0.061024 cubic inch =0.0070390 gill =0.0351949 ounce
1 cubic decimetre	= 0.0353147 cubic foot =0.219969 gallon =0.99997 litre
1 cubic metre	=35.315 cubic foot = 1.30795 cubic yard =219.969 gallon =0.99997 kilolitre

V AREA

Table

100 square millimetres	=1 square centimetre
100 square cm.	=1 square decimetre
100 square decimetres	=1 sq. metre (1 sq. m.=10000 sq. cm.)
100 sq. metres	=1 acre or 1 sq. dekametre
100 acres	=1 hectare of 1 sq. hectometre (1 hectare (ha)=10000 sq. m)
100 hectares	=1 square kilometre

From old units to new units:

1 sq. inch	=6.4516 sq. cm. =0.00064516 sq. m.
1 sq. foot	=929.03 sq. cm. = 0.092903 sq. m. =9.2903 sq. decimetres
1 sq. yard	= 0.83613 sq. metre =0.00831613 acre
1 cent 1 sq. chain	=40.4686 sq. metres =404.686 sq. metres
1 acre (4840 sq. Yds or 10 sq. chains)	=0.404686 hectare =40.4686 acres
1 sq. mile (640 acres)	=258.999 hectares =2.58999 sq. kilometres

From new units to old units:

1 square cm.	= 0.155000 sq. inch
1 sq. metre	=1550.00 sq. inch = 10.7639 sq. foot =1.19599 sq. yard
1 acre	=119.599 sq. yard =0.0247105 acres
1 hectare	=2 47105 acres
1 sq. kilometre	=0.386101 sq. mile

APPENDIX—B—VII

List of Freedom Fighters of Damoh District

Serial No.	Name and Father's Name
1	2
DAMOH	
1	Shri Rajaram alias Rajendra Kumar S/o Biharilal Jain
2	„ Gopal S/o Channe
3	„ Nanchanlal S/o Gulab Chand
4	„ Gauri Shanker Pyasi S/o Ram Dayal
5	„ Harsaran S/o Kalisaran
6	„ Babulal Ghanshyam
7	„ Sher Khan S/o Fateh Khan
8	„ Kundanlal S/o Chhotelal
9	„ Mulchand S/o Laxmi Prasad Teli
10	„ Balu alias Balram S/o Hazarilal Darji
11	„ Ram Prasad S/o Fadali
12	„ Durag Singh S/o Than Singh
13	„ Gaya Prasad S/o Ramdayal
14	„ Kamta Prasad Shastri S/o Moolchand
15	„ Nand Kishore S/o Sirai Dheemar
16	„ Ram Prasad alias Tantoo S/o Nande Chamar
17	„ Singhai Ratan Chand S/o Mulam Chand
18	„ Mahadeo Prasad S/o Har Prasad
19	„ Makhan Lal S/o Ladali Lal
20	„ Gotiram S/o Nannai Lal
21	„ Prem Chand S/o Pannalal
22	„ Dal Chand S/o Nandilal
23	„ Narmada Prasad S/o Sita Ram
24	„ Roop Chand S/o Duli Chand Bajaj
25	„ Prabhu Narayan S/o Ramdhan
26	„ Khilan Singh S/o Mulu Rajput
27	„ Sunder Lal S/o Laxman Singh
28	„ Chhutia S/o Chanha
29	„ Ganesh Singh S/o Buddh Singh
30	„ Babulal S/o Biharilal Jain
31	„ Malthoo Prasad S/o Jagannath Prasad
32	„ Banwarilal S/o Raghunath Prasad
33	„ Singhai Gulab Chand S/o Rajaram Jain
34	„ Pooran Chand S/o Hazarilal Jain
35	„ Munnalal Chitra S/o Ramdayal
36	„ Jagannath Singh S/o Bharat Singh Rathore
37	„ Babulal S/o Nathu Ram

1	2
DAMOH	
38	Shri Narayan Prasad S/o Nathu Ram
39	„ Bhagirath S/o Rakhan
40	„ Chhotelal S/o Brajlal
41	„ Sheo Prasad S/o Gulab Chand Jain
42	„ Kunjbihari Lal Guru S/o Manmohanlal
43	„ Laxmi Shanker Dhagat S/o Ram Krishna
44	„ Gyan Chand Shrivastav S/o Devkinandan
45	„ Prem Narayan Baronya S/o Kanhaiyalal
46	„ Raghubar Prasad S/o Gorelal Modi
47	„ Gauri Shanker Mehta, Advocate
48	„ Kamta Prasad Jain
49	„ Harish Chandra Marothi
50	„ Prem Shanker Dave S/o Hari Shanker Dave
51	„ Liladhar Saraf S/o Maltoo Lal
52	„ Ramji Bhai Patel
53	„ Khem Chand Singhai S/o Hiralal
54	„ Raghunath Sahay Verma S/o Jhunnilal Verma
55	„ Mookchand S/o Ganesh Namdeo
56	„ Prem Chand Kapadia S/o Phool Chand
57	„ Shrikrishna Gupta S/o Ghasiram
58	„ Ram Manoharlal Shrivastava S/o Thakur Prasad
59	„ Kanchhedi S/o Buddho Khan
60	„ Harbans Singh Gill, Commandant, Home Guard
61	„ Thakur Purshottam Shelar S/o Girja Charan
62	„ Prem Narayan Soni S/o Kundanlal Soni
63	„ Chowdhry Kapoor Chand S/o Darbarilal Jain
64	„ Rajaram S/o Lokman Jain
65	„ Ranchhod Shankar Dhagat S/o Pt. Sheo Shankar Dhagat
66	„ Komal Chand S/o Raghubar Prasad Modi
67	„ Kanhaiyalal Namdeo S/o Gorelal
68	„ Kalooram Swarnkar S/o Deo Shankar
69	„ Rajaram Namdeo S/o Bhero Prasad
70	„ Shankarlal S/o Bhaiyalal Jain
71	„ Ramcharan Jain S/o Nanhelal Jain Konchawala
72	„ Prem Prakash Deepak S/o Jugal Kishore Khatri
73	Late Kampor Chal S/o Darbarilal
74	Shri Har Prasad Ghasiram
75	„ Jagan S/o Chinte
76	„ Tante S/o Gauri Shankar
77	„ Babulal alias Kadorilal S/o Liladhar
78	„ Bharat alias Jagmohan S/o Liladhar
79	„ Babulal Munshi
80	„ Gokal Chand Singhai S/o Karanjoolal

1	2
DAMOH	
81	Shri Bhaiyalal Choudhry S/o Biharilal
82	,, Prem Shankar Dhagat S/o Laxmi Shankar
83	,, Prem Chand Singhai, Village Semra Bujurg
84	,, Damodar Rao Shrikhande
85	,, Kishorilal Marwadi
86	,, Devkinandan Shrivastav, Vakeel
87	,, Baralal Hirdepur
88	Late Shri Dalchand Gangra S/o Nand Kishore
89	,, ,, Kamal Singh S/o Dholak Singh Rajput
90	,, ,, Amrat Lal Khare S/o Mannulal
91	,, ,, Munnilal Nai
92	,, ,, Bhaiyalal S/o Premlal Jain
93	,, ,, Kastoor Chand S/o Gokal Chand Nayak
94	Shri Hanuman Prasad S/o Bhaiyalal Gupta
95	,, Babulal Jain Ex-Head Master, Hirdepur
96	,, Late Bhaiyalal S/o Kodu Kachhi
97	Shri Hardatt Singh alias Khel Singh Ajmani S/o Karan Singh
DEVELOPMENT BLOCK, PATHARIA	
98	Shri Bhagirath S/o Khunke, Keolari
99	,, Parmanand S/o Nanhailal
100	,, Chintaman S/o Benimadhav Tiwari
101	,, Kalyan Singh Nanhe Singh, Keolari
102	,, Aman Singh S/o Dhan Singh, Keolari
103	,, Babulal Mishra S/o Kamta Prasad, Mirzapur, Lakhroni
104	,, Asharam S/o Jhunne, Keolari
105	,, Deendayal Guru S/o Nandkishore
106	,, Babulal S/o Girdharilal Jain
107	,, Nathuwa S/o Deoju Basare, Keolari
108	,, Sukhlal S/o Parmoo Sunar
109	,, Motilal S/o Gajadhar Prasad, Chourasea
110	,, Pannalal Dube S/o Baharelal
111	,, Ganesh Prasad S/o Hazarilal
112	,, Bindraban S/o Kishore Bra, Itawabujurg
DEVELOPMENT BLOCK, JAWERA	
113	Shri Sabulal S/o Anant Ram Jain
114	,, Wakte S/o Mannulal Brahman, Gubra
115	,, Chintaman S/o Dasrath
116	,, Late Trilok Chand S/o Maljeet
117	,, Arjun Singh S/o Hari Kishore Lodhi

1	2
DEVELOPMENT BLOCK, HATTA	
118	Shri Girja Prasad S/o Kunjilal
119	,, Raghunath Singh S/o Ratan Singh
120	,, Gaya Prasad S/o Deendayal
121	,, Chandra Shekhar Trivedi S/o Parmanand
122	,, Raja Ram Anantram Chaurasia
123	,, Late Ram Prasad alias Ramswaroop Das
124	,, Jagmohan Prasad S/o Jamna Prasad
125	,, Chatar Patar Sharma S/o Jayanti Prasad

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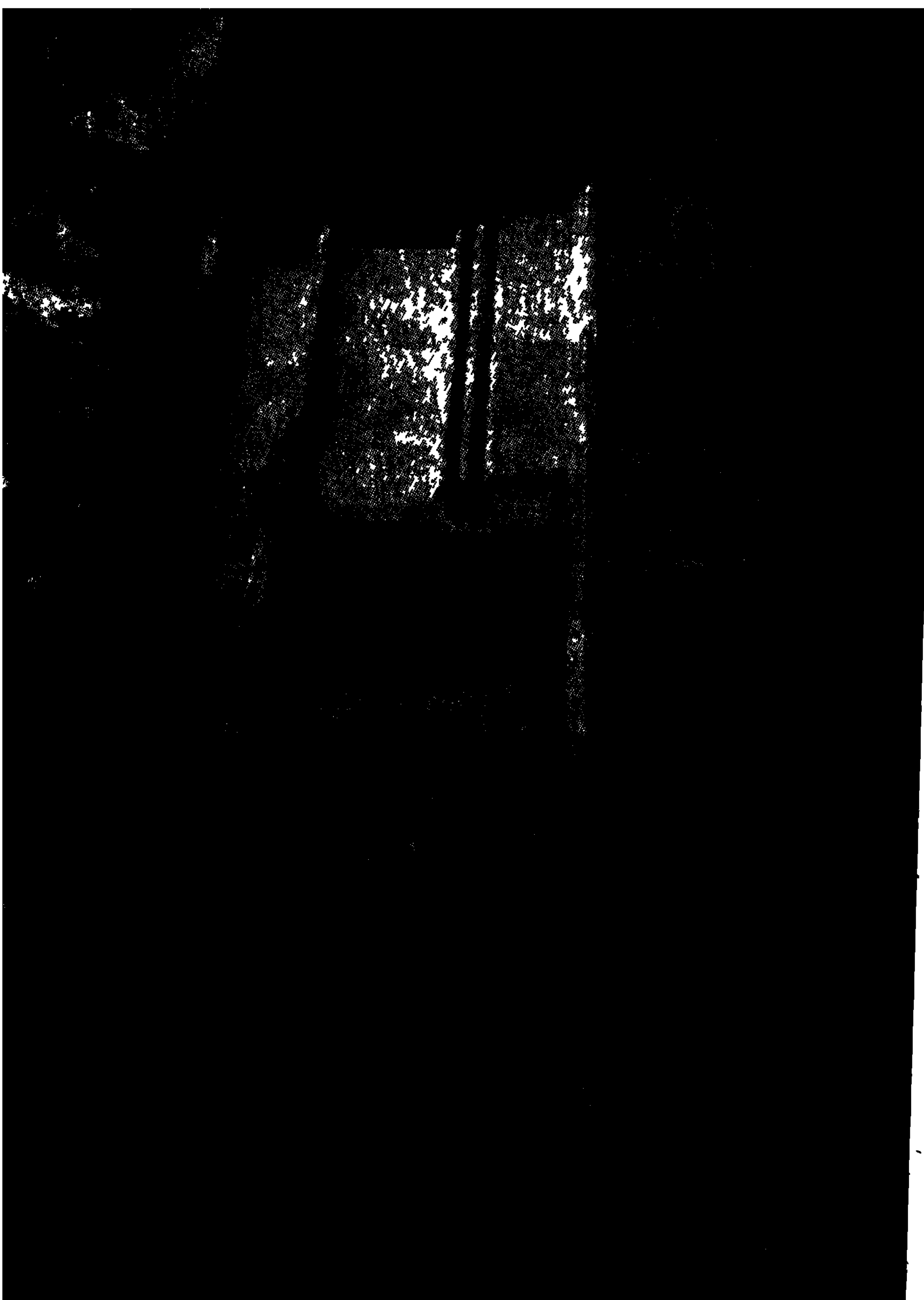
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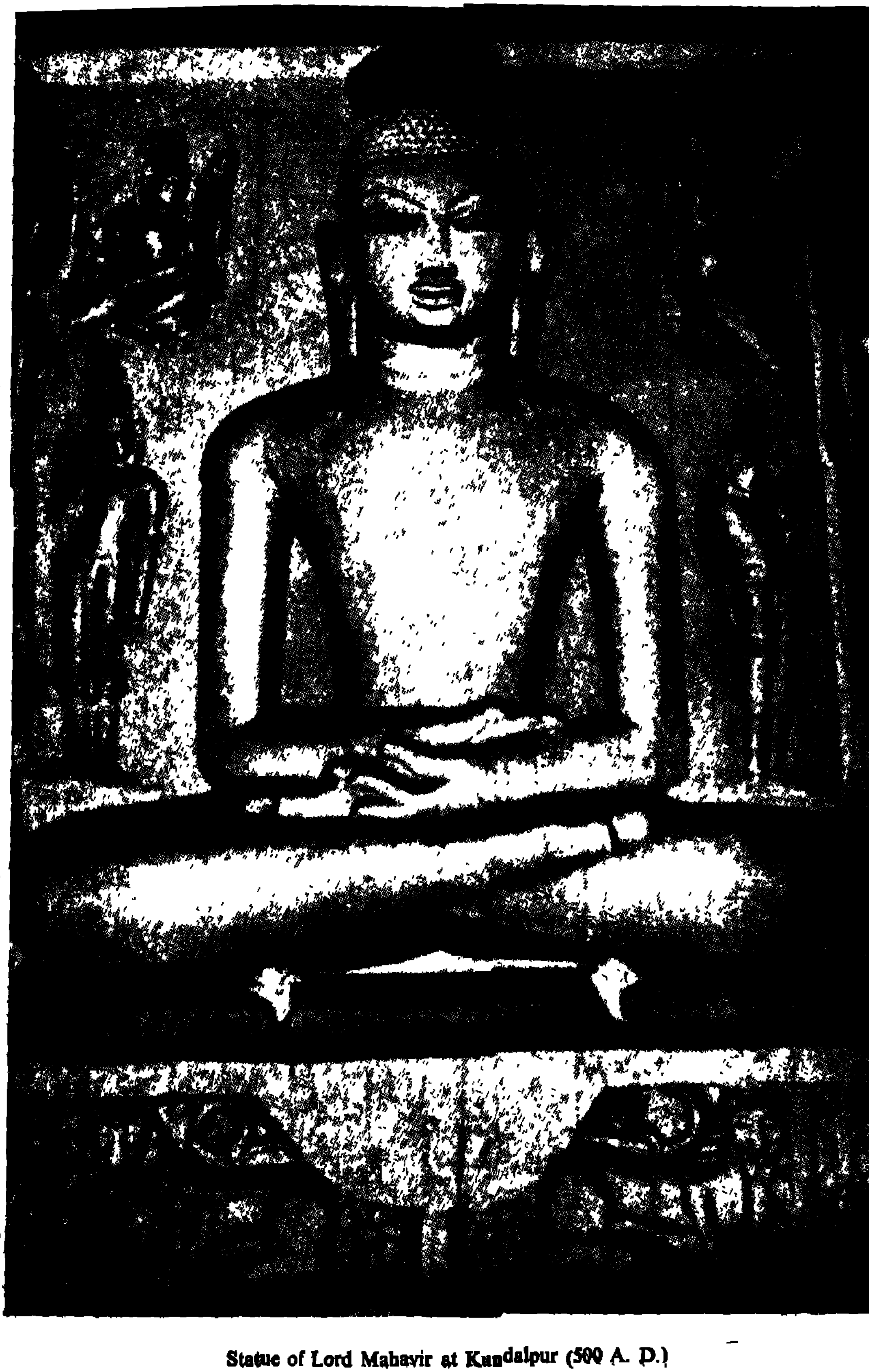
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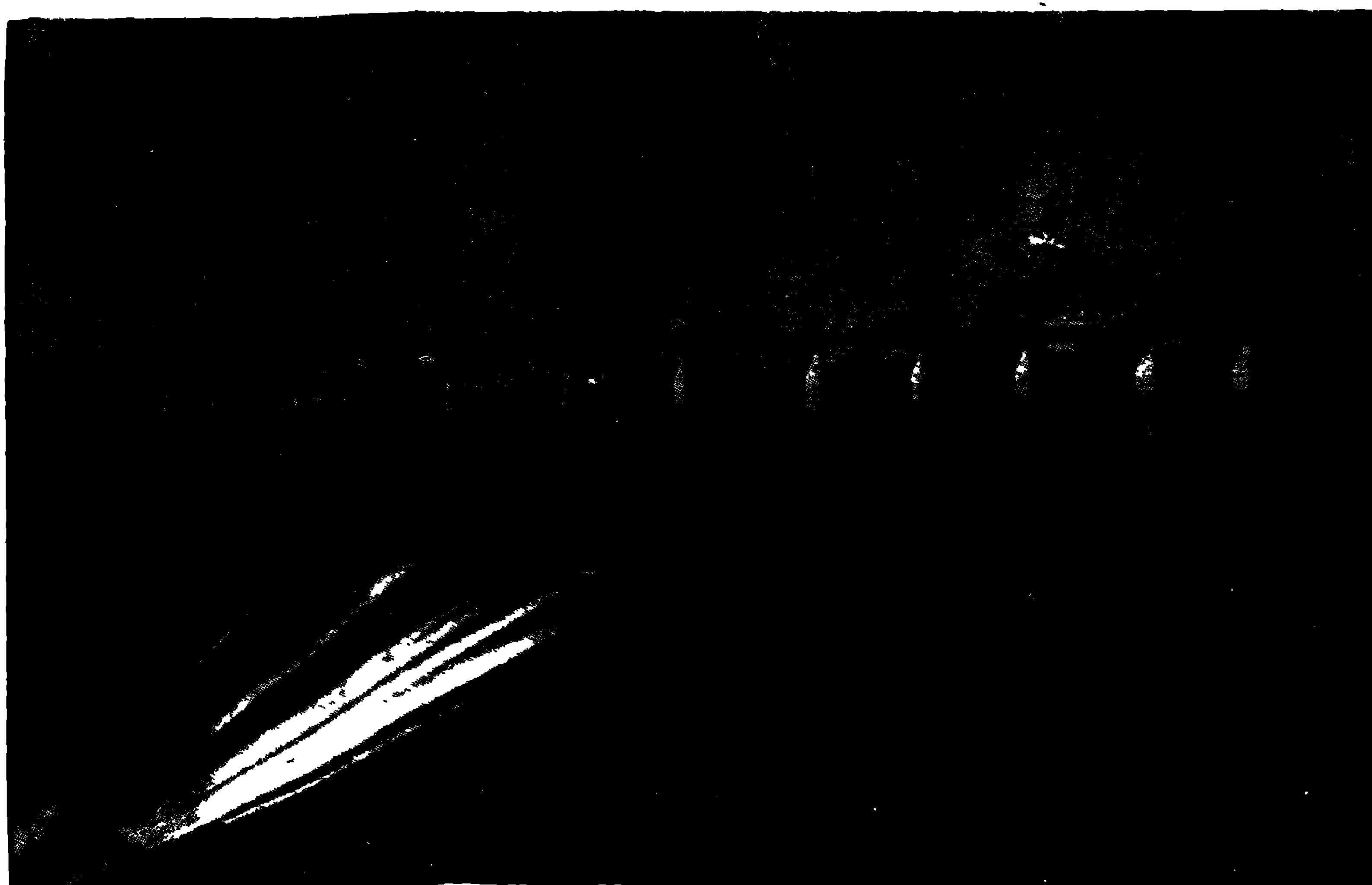
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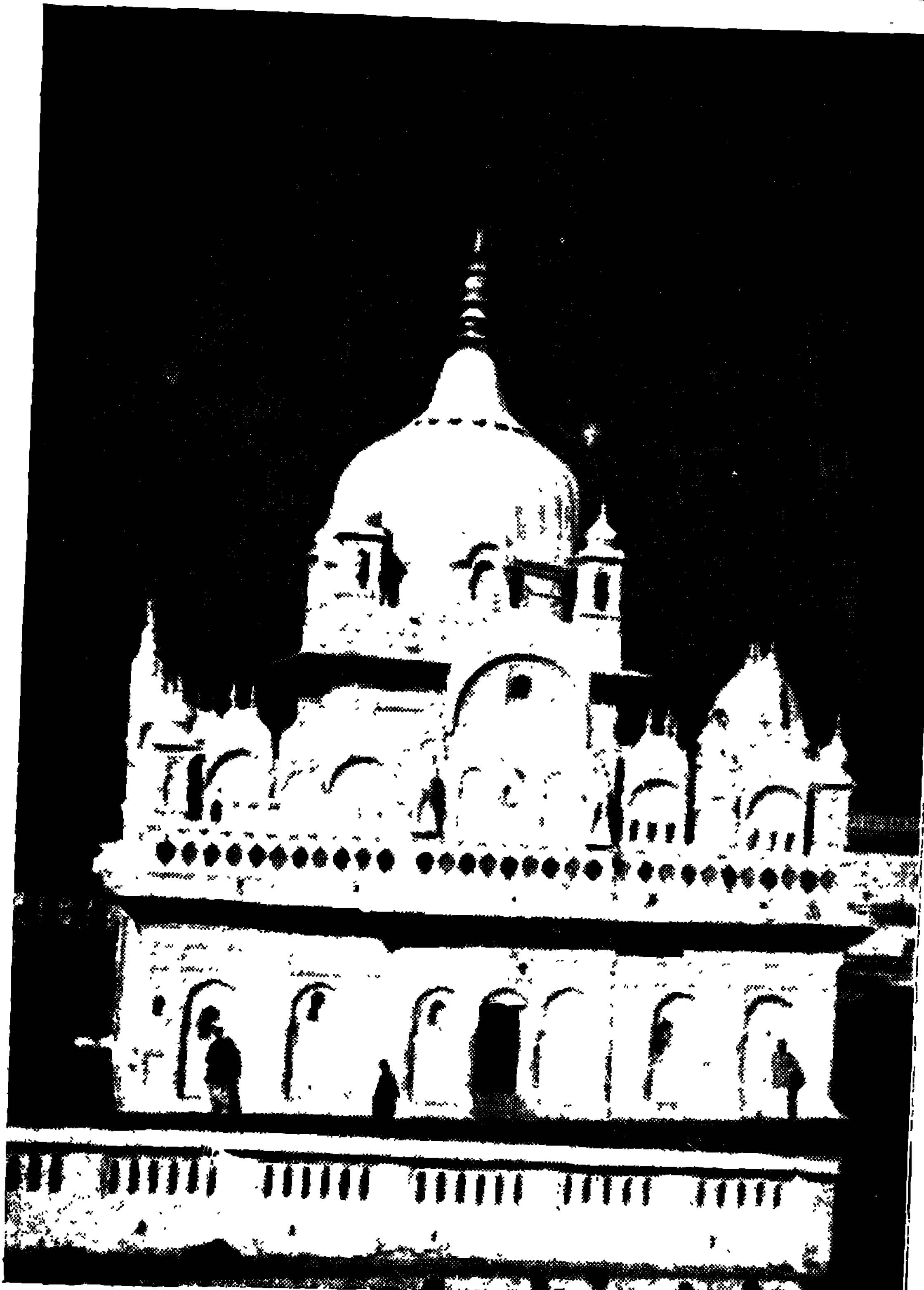




Statue of Lord Mahavir at Kundalpur (500 A. D.)



Bridge over the Sonar River, Hatta



Shiva Temple, Bandakpur





Vishnu : Gupta Temple, Kundalpur, c. 10th century A. D. (Courtesy State Archaeology Deptt.)



Shiva Temple, [illegible], c. 10th century A. D. (Courtesy State Archaeology Deptt.)

GAZETTEER OF INDIA

ORISSA

MAYURBHANJ